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The Educational Question in Europe and America.

IN more countries than one the education of the children forms a prominent subject of discussion. England, indeed, is the scene of the most acute controversy, but in France it is by brute violence that the question is being settled. The opponents of religion in that country have all power, strange to say, in their hands. Those of our readers who wish for the best account of the origin, causes, and authors of this persecution—for it cannot be called by any other name—will find it in the *London Pilot*. The correspondence of this paper gives a better account of the French affairs which are of permanent interest and importance than is to be found elsewhere. Although the expulsion of the teaching orders is an event most deeply to be deplored, yet it is a testimony to their success. The history of the educational struggle is one of which all Catholics have the right to be proud; the zeal of the people in erecting and maintaining schools at their own expense and with great self-sacrifice, is one which may well serve for an example to Catholics in other parts of the world; and although the prospect there is for the time being dark, yet the faith of the French people, so often manifested in the past, will again conquer the world.

England, however, as we have said, is the chief scene of discussion. This discussion is worth more particular study because, both from the nature of the case and also on account of the recent *rapprochement* between the two countries, whatever goes on there affects this country; and *vice versa*, whatever goes on in this country is more and more affecting the minds of those on the other side. This is shown by the Moseley commission. The most striking feature is the so-called passive resistance which has been offered to the payment of the education rate. Passive resistance consists in refusing to pay the rate so far as such rate is applicable to the support of what are now called the non-provided schools, but which formerly were called voluntary schools. The non-payment involves the seizure of goods, and the sale of these goods by public auction in payment not merely of the rate but of the costs. These sometimes amount to five, six, or even ten times the amount of the rate. This mode of resistance to the law of the land is accompanied by the assembling of hooting crowds, and although no violence has taken place, yet in some cases the auctioneer has had to escape by back ways; in other cases the fear of violence and of loss of custom has rendered it impossible to obtain the services of an auctioneer. Tens of thousands of such refusals to pay the rate for the non-provided schools have occurred; members of Parliament, ministers of religion, magistrates even, have been numbered in the ranks of passive resisters.

And upon what plea has this breaking of law been justified? Upon that of the sanctity of conscience. The passive resisters declared it to be their duty to obey God and to disobey the law. Now, we are not lightly to scorn such an appeal. Would to God it were more often made, or at least that in voting the voice of conscience were more often listened to. But when made as it has been done in this case, it is more likely, we think, than not to bring all such appeals into derision. The disobedience has been defended on the ground that parents cannot rightly be called upon to contribute to the payment for teaching which declares that they themselves, and their children if they listen to their parents, are heretics, and consequently on the road to

everlasting perdition. So far, however, is this from being the case, that by means of what is called a conscience clause every child whose parents so wish is released from attendance at school during the time devoted to religious instruction. Moreover, for thirty-four years the objectors to the payment of rates have, without resistance, been paying taxes for the support of the very same schools. By what system of casuistry payment of rates can be shown to be sinful and payment of taxes not a sin, would require the subtlety of a Duns Scotus to make clear. Moreover, those men of so tender a conscience—men who claim to be the authors and founders of the greatness of their country, to whom is to be attributed, they say, all in it that is good—after having lopped off as sectarian everything distinctive of their own respective denominations, and put in abeyance all those truths which constitute the reason for their own separate existence, do not hesitate to take by force of law the money of Catholics and of others who detect this monster—as Mr. Gladstone called this latest form of Protestantism. Such is their sense of justice. Well did Sir William Anson describe their conscience as pampered.

But of what interest is all this to people in this country? Of great interest, it seems to us. For the originators and maintainers of the American school system are of the same stock, and are actuated by the same principles. From the methods and proceedings of the passive resisters in England we learn the character of our opponents here. Purely secular education here has been the result, and if the same class triumphs, although it is not at present wished, secular education will be established there. The Catholics in England have found allies in the National Church in the struggle to prevent this step towards de-Christianizing the country. Is there any hope that the Catholics of this country will find help towards the reconstituting the schools on a Christian basis? Of this we have seen some signs which we have gladly welcomed. Bishop Doane, of Albany, has recently pointed out how the financial immorality so widely spread, so highly placed, so greatly honored, is due to an irreligious education. The Rev. M. Geer has still more powerfully and earnestly warned the country of the impending dangers; Dr. Seeley, of the New Jersey State Normal College of Trenton, has clearly shown how inadequate is the teaching of religion which it is possible to give in Sunday schools. In England the Free Church Council testifies to the fact that ninety per cent. of the Sunday-school scholars are lost to the churches.

The growing indifference to religion, and consequently to morals, is being felt by many in this country. It has led to the formation of a Religious Education Association. This association held its second annual conference in Philadelphia at the beginning of March. It was presided over by the moderator of the Congregational National Council. A Methodist Episcopal bishop offered prayer; a Quaker college-president read the Scriptures; a Protestant Episcopal bishop made what was thought to be the most tender and human address of the evening. A Presbyterian theological professor shared the audience's favor with a Baptist pastor, while a Lutheran university professor made the address of welcome. The association has a platform so broad that the Jew and the Catholic, as well as the Universalist and the Unitarian, may stand upon it if they will. The only qualification for membership consists in being engaged in the work of moral and religious education. A rabbi took part in the proceedings by delivering an address. Its program is declared to be constructive; but what sort of a building will result from the ef-

forts of architects of such opposed ideas it is not hard to foretell. Indeed, it is almost pitiful to see men who are looked upon as leaders and teachers engaged in such a hopeless undertaking. It is worthy of note, however, as testifying to the dissatisfaction with the present state of disunion which exists, and with the ruin to souls which it is causing. It may perhaps lead to the recognition of the fact that the only way to union which is possible is through uncompromising maintenance of the faith once delivered to the saints under the guardianship and guidance of a teacher divinely preserved from error. Dr. Cuthbert Hall, president of the Union Theological Seminary, New York, deplored the apparent—we think he might have said the evident and manifest—tendency toward tolerant non-religion which is growing in American life, and hoped that the association, of which he has been made president, would devote its best endeavors to awaken and to educate a public sense of religion as a vital part of education for good citizenship.

The Catholics in England have been uncompromising in maintaining their schools, and because they have been uncompromising have rendered them secure. This is recognized by all parties, and whatever may happen to the Church of England schools there is every reason to hope that no attempt will be made to take away support from Catholic schools, even if the other schools should be secularized. But they have not tried to fight alone. They were too weak to do that. They sought for allies and they found them in the Established Church of England; side by side they have fought the battle. And although uncompromising, English Catholics have not been unreasonable. The present Act is recognized by Archbishop Bourne in his first Pastoral Letter as by no means ideally just. It gives undue advantages to the schools in which Undenominationalism is taught, giving them in every respect complete support, while Catholics have still to build and to maintain school buildings and give them rent-free for the public use. The Act, therefore, is far from being equitable; yet for the sake of the absolute necessity of having Catholic schools the archbishop accepts it and urges his people to carry loyally into effect the agreement, and to do all in their power to continue to take that foremost place in all educational work which belongs of right to the Church of Jesus Christ. In a subsequent letter the archbishop has urged Catholics to take an active interest in the election for the London Council, both by voting and by putting test questions to the candidates. For so far has the lawless spirit of passive resistance prevailed that all the Welsh Councils, and at least one English County Council, have refused to levy rates for the support of the voluntary schools. That the London Council would act in much the same way if the opponents of the religious education should get the power has led the archbishop to advise active participation in the London County Council Election.

In this the archbishop is co-operating with the Protestant bishops of London and Rochester. The former affirmed that English Churchmen have for eighty years been spending fifty thousand dollars each week in the support of religious education, and have added 1,000,000 new school-places since the passing of the Education Act of 1870. He declares that when a great principle is in danger church people are faithless to their trust if they do not rouse themselves from apathy and act quickly and decisively in defence of the teaching of definite religious truth as an integral part of true education. It would be a thing to cause joy in the hearts of all who wish for the well-being of this country if the bishops of its Protestant Episcopal church would make a similar appeal. The archbishop of Canterbury too, although not making so practical an application of his teaching, is no less clear and definite in his teaching of the duty to defend religious schools. He looks upon it as a question which concerned the welfare of the country more than any other, because it concerned the welfare of every single family in the land far more than the question of the Boer war, of Mr. Chamberlain's fiscal pro-

posals, or anything else that could occupy people at this period of national life.

The position of the enemies of definite religious education is seen from the following scheme, which has been published by its General Committee and unanimously accepted as an embodiment of their principles. The Free Church Council is an organization of the more orthodox Dissenting bodies, nominally formed for religious purposes but actually developing into a political power. The following is the authorized scheme. It will be seen how near this ideal approaches to the actual American Public School system: "1. That the system of national education shall recognize only one type of public elementary schools—viz., schools provided and controlled by a public education authority.

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Examples and Anecdotes in Teaching Christian Doctrine.

FOURTH PAPER BY "LESLIE STANTON"—A RELIGIOUS TEACHER.

THE custom of teaching by stories is as old as the human race. From the days of the peaceful Sethites and the Scriptural "mighty men, men of renown," when the patriarch drew his listeners about him and embodied in narrative form the facts and fancies which his ripened intellect had accumulated in its hundreds of years dealings with the affairs of life, down to our own busy, bustling times, when the most popular and powerful literary form is the work of fiction, story-telling has found place in all manner of teaching. Of our Blessed Lord Himself was it prophesied that He would use this form of discourse; and when His public life began the prophecy was amply fulfilled. "All these things Jesus spoke in parables to the multitudes: and without parables He did not speak to them." (St. Matt., xiii., 34.)

In the catechism class, the judicious use of stories is a powerful aid in interesting the pupils and fixing the truths of faith and morality in their young minds. This form of teaching, however, may be, and as a matter of fact often is, productive of far from satisfactory results. This is because the wrong kind of stories are selected or because the stories are told in an ineffective way or because they are told at inopportune times. Accordingly, in this paper, we shall discuss the following questions: (1) What stories shall be told? (2) How should they be told? (3) What time should be devoted to story-telling?

I. *What kind of stories should be told in the Christian Doctrine Class?*

The best of all stories are Biblical stories. From an intelligent and comprehensive study of the various stories contained in the Old Testament, such as the death of Abel, the deluge, the dove sent out by Noah, the preservation of Moses, the fiery serpents, etc., the children will perceive the connection and interdependence of the various parts of the sacred Book with one another and their common reference to the scheme of salvation which the Old Testament foretells and prefigures and the New Testament proves and records.

Next to Biblical episodes, the best stories are those found in Church history and in the lives of the Saints. Such narrations not merely interest the children but likewise stimulate their will power and fire their hearts with holy ardor. It is a fact that this rich mine of material suitable for catechism stories is not made use of as generally by our teachers as one might at first suppose. The lives of the Saints, especially, are too often ignored; yet they will be found to yield some of the richest material for story-telling. The teacher should familiarize himself with the lives of the Saints and be able to draw upon his knowledge thereof when occasion arises. Stories founded on the lives of the Saints should always be preferred to stories dealing with the pagan philosophers and moral men of the

ancient world, because the former are the far more adequate embodiment of true Catholic ideals. At its best, the virtue of an Agis, a Brutus or a Plato was purely natural and invariably one-sided; that of a Polycarp, a Francis or a Patrick was supernatural in its nature and well-rounded in its development.

Stories calculated to edify and instruct the pupils should be employed to the exclusion of those intended merely to amuse. Amusement is well enough in its own place, but that place is not found in the precious moments set aside for instruction in Christian doctrine. Hence, stories remotely connected with the lesson and which do not possess a practical value as aids in the comprehension of the text should not be told. Ghost stories of all kinds must be sedulously avoided, as they tend to excite the children's imagination without being of the least benefit. It is also well to guard against making the stories told in the catechism class consist to any great extent of events more or less marvelous. Teachers founding their class stories on the unauthenticated accounts of miraculous events contained in certain devotional books delude their pupils and sometimes involve themselves in disagreeable complications without, at the same time, enlightening the children the least bit on any one of the truths of faith or making the love of virtue sink any deeper into their hearts. Should the teacher wish to give an account of some miracle not dealing with the life of our Blessed Lord, he will find rich material in the processes of canonization of the various Saints. The accounts of miracles therein contained may be relied upon as perfectly authentic.

II. How should the story be told?

The qualities which should characterize the catechist's presentation of the story to his pupils are three, interest, brevity and coherence.

Interest. The story should be told in an interesting manner simply because that is the first and principal means of securing the attention of the pupils. Children find no pleasure in listening to a dry, set, formal recital, however sublime or orthodox the subject matter may be. Thus it is, that story-tellers, like poets, are born, not made; but just as an ordinary individual can, by patient practice, acquire the dubious art of penning harmless and more or less graceful versal effusions, so, by careful preparation, can the catechist, though not to the manner born, form the habit of talking interestingly to his class. An effective way to win the attention of the children is to elicit sympathy for some particular character in the narration, pointing out in a few graphic words the distinguishing characteristics of the person described, some unusual feat performed by him, the extraordinary circumstances in which he was placed, etc.

As a general thing, stories should be related rather than read. Of course, one might say with perfect truth that it would be an extremely presumptuous teacher who could think himself capable of outdoing the simplicity, beauty and effectiveness of the Biblical narration. But this objection is not to the point. There is no question of trying to improve on the sacred text, but of trying to present the ideas contained in that text in the form best suited to young and immature minds. Ordinarily, children find reading—even what might be considered good reading—more or less tiresome; it never does, it never can make the same impression that apparently extempore narration invariably produces. In telling the story, the teacher should, ordinarily, follow the plan of the original narration and show his familiarity with the subject by imparting to his listeners the atmosphere of the story. The children will then possess a coherent and fairly well organized idea of the characters and incidents, since words, voice, gestures, and personality of the teacher all combine to make a strong and lasting impression.

Brevity. When we say that the story should be brief, we do not mean that the narration should necessarily take up only a small portion of time, but that no useless details

should be presented and no remotely connected issues given undue prominence. Certain effective scenes must be described to impart the atmosphere of the story; but once this is done, the narration should be clear, direct and succinct. The third part of the familiar rule, "Have something to say, say it, stop talking," applies with as much force to narrative recitals as to sermons and orations. To protract the story after it has been really told is liable to confuse the children and prevent their forming a clear and definite notion of what the story was all about.

Coherence. Just as brevity ordains that the story should not be drawn out beyond its proper limits, so coherence requires that its several parts hang together in such a way that the children may, without undue effort, grasp the relations existing between its various divisions. In many respects, this is the most difficult part of story-telling. It is comparatively easy to begin a story, and scarcely less so to relate the striking incidents which compose it; but to indicate, or rather to suggest, the interdependence of the several portions, and, without stiffness and formality, to draw a suitable, attractive and adequate conclusion is a matter which cannot so easily be performed. The best and most practical solution of the difficulty—the best and most practical solution of almost all difficulties met with in the catechism class—is careful preparation. The chief features of the story and the lesson which it is intended to convey should be distinctly foreseen. In no part of the narration should that lesson be lost sight of, although, on the other hand, in no case should it be obtruded. When the story is rightly told there will be no need of interrupting the narration to interject a lecture on morality. Neither should the moral of the story be formulated at the conclusion. Some of us here recall those old-style Sunday-school books containing five or six demure little stories with the moral of each tale printed in bold-face type, and how we used sedulously to skip the moral and begin the next story; for, weak and disgustingly "goody-goody" as those stories were, we preferred them to the heavy-typed "morals." It is probable that we didn't miss much. The story that cannot teach its own lesson is not improved by having a moral tacked onto its conclusion. In a genuine story, the lesson it is intended to convey need never be indicated; it is always felt.

III. When should the story be told?

When the story is a story and not merely a reference or an allusion to some Biblical or biographical incident, its proper place is at the end of the lesson. Exceptional cases, of course, may arise when it is more expedient to tell the story at other times; but the advantages of the narration taking place just before the pupils are dismissed warrant our making this rule of procedure. The story is to the catechetical instruction what the dessert is to the dinner. It is necessary, relatively speaking, and very good in its way; but if it comes too soon it will destroy our appetite for more substantial things. Relate a lengthy story at the commencement of the lesson and you sow seeds of inattention and restlessness for the remainder of the hour. The only thing that will arouse the pupils after that is another story; and too many stories, like too many pieces of pie, are not good for children. On the contrary, the story related at the end of the lesson is a sort of reward for attention and good behavior. It serves to drive well home the lesson of the day and constitutes a pleasant prelude to dismissal.

Circumstances differ so widely in different places that it is difficult to state what proportion of the time set apart for religious instruction should be devoted to story-telling. The teacher who does little else than tell stories will find that his pupils will know and care for little else. On the contrary, the teacher who rarely or never tells stories will often fall upon dismal days; he will at times find the children absentminded and listless, and will experience difficulty in making efforts to awaken interest and arouse enthusiasm. The sure, safe course lies between the two extremes.

Practical Methods-(V) Geography.

FIFTH PAPER BY A REV. DIOCESAN SUPERINTENDENT.

THE studies in geography are usually divided into three courses: the Primary, the Elementary and the Advanced, each comprising about two school years.

The Primary is concerned with those geographical facts and phenomena that are near and common and can be readily observed by the younger pupils. The advance is made by easy steps to what is more remote and unknown, until the pupils attain a general knowledge of the earth as a whole, its size, shape, and principal divisions, together with the arrangement of its surface and its adaptation to the needs and activities of the different races of men.

The Elementary course reviews the former studies briefly, and includes "definite ideas of position, direction and distance; of the natural divisions of land and water; and the manner of representing them on maps; of climate; of the vegetable, the animal and the mineral kingdom; and of the occupations and conditions of men." It is intended as a solid foundation for the more advanced studies, while it affords even those who may be withdrawn from school before finishing the full course, a very complete knowledge of the elements of geography.

The Advanced course is adapted to the more matured minds of the pupils in the higher grammar classes, and serves to bring out the science of geography, by establishing the interrelations of mathematical, physical and political geography. Especial attention is bestowed upon the industrial and commercial value of geography, and the United States and one's own state receive the additional study which their importance to the children demands.

The following general suggestions may aid some teachers in their methods of teaching this subject:

1. The foundations of geographical study are laid almost from the first school year by means of the *Observation Lessons*, or *Nature Study*, in which the pupil is lead to observe and note the interesting phenomena of nature around him. The first lessons should be entirely oral exercises. The attention of the child is directed by pleasant conversations about familiar things to the ideas, terms, and facts special to geography. He is to be trained to use his eyes upon what lies around him. He should be asked questions on the school and its surroundings, the elements of natural scenery which the neighborhood affords, the direction and relative distance of these from the school and one another, the products of the earth, the various occupations of men, their customs, habits, food and clothing, the general characteristics and modes of life of domestic animals, etc.

The pupil should be directed to discover or ascertain for himself the important facts within the horizon of his own observation, and only those which he cannot be expected readily to observe should be told him by the teacher. Definitions should be sparingly used, and only as a summing up of the knowledge which he has obtained. His imagination should be brought into play to lead him out from his home surroundings to the general physical, political and industrial conditions of other lands and peoples. Pictures typical of life in various countries should, if possible, be placed before the class to aid the imagination in getting accurate and vivid impressions of what has been taught. In teaching geographical ideas, illustration by means of objects, models or pictures is preferable to mere descriptions, but at least a description of a place or country should always accompany the location of places. In the geography of our own country, the leading facts of American history should be recalled, to enliven the interest and help to fix the location in memory. In local and descriptive geography the order for the recitation

may be: 1. The name and location; 2. A description of the geographical features; 3. A narration of the principal historical events connected therewith.

2. In the elementary stage a brief review should be made of the work done in the primary grades. In taking up the text-book the minds of the pupils should not be burdened with too much memory work in local and descriptive geography, and only the more important definitions found in the elementary text-book should be committed to memory.

Much success in teaching will depend on the manner in which the text-book is used by teacher and pupil. The teacher must be careful to avoid making lessons a mere repetition of the set phrases of the book, without any attractive and intelligible explanation. As far as possible, every statement found in the book should be verified and illustrated by facts that lie within the observation of the pupil. There should be no memorizing of a certain number of pages, or of a long list of rivers, capes, mountains, etc., and the recitation of these off-hand according to some unvarying rule. The topical method even in this elementary study is most advisable. A certain, but limited, amount of memory work in local geography is indispensable for a proper appreciation of descriptive geography, but the latter is more interesting and more serviceable for the pupil.

The text-book should not supplant the daily use of the black-board, globe and maps. Rough sketching of the outline maps will allow the pupils to have before their eyes a fair picture of the contour of a country in its natural and political divisions. But watchfulness is needed to see that map drawing means something more than the mechanical tracing of a printed form. The pupils should be encouraged to take their turn at the board or map and with pointer in hand illustrate their answers.

In the descriptive narratives pupils should be required to give, in their own language, the substance of not only the text, but also the information and illustrations presented in class by the teacher.

In written exercises the subjects should be simple and calculated to extract thought from the pupils as well as to test their memory work. Reviews according to topics should be had occasionally in which the pupils will use a good outline wall map of the section studied; but in the monthly review the questions should, as a rule, be answered without the aid of any map. The proper combination of map and memory work in reciting the leading facts of geography is essential for good results in teaching.

The work in elementary science should be co-ordinated with the work in geography, with which it has very close relationship. When practicable, the use of objective aids should be made, as specimens of mineral and vegetable productions, pictures of plants and animal life, etc. The illustrated weekly papers are very serviceable in this respect, and the pupils might be requested to get illustrations of this or similar kind.

3. Geography as a science is the subject matter of the advanced course, and the fullest knowledge and the liveliest interest are demanded of the teacher to make the facts and principles tell upon the pupils.

The method is analytic, proceeding from the earth as a whole to the various parts. The facts of geography are classified, the causes of the earth's phenomena are investigated, and the more important terms are defined and the definitions should be, as a rule, memorized.

The recitations should be based upon the topical plan, and reviews be made in connection with which the pupils should prepare outline maps, and introduce imaginary travels, grouping together the facts relative to position, natural features, products, peoples and institutions.

The studies in the physical geography of the United States should be reviewed in connection with the studies in United States history.

Teaching Diacritical Marks.

JOHN SULLIVAN (ILLINOIS)

In response to the inquiry of a teacher in the last number of THE JOURNAL, as to methods of teaching primary children the use of diacritical marks, I would state briefly a plan that I have found productive of good results.

In beginning with a class of children averaging six or seven years of age, I use a number of simple words to illustrate the long vowels, *ā, ē, ī, ō, ū*. Taking the word *āte*, for instance, I sound "ā" and "t." After sounding the two letters a number of times, I proceed with the other vowels, as in *hē, ice, ōld, ūse*. I then develop new words by prefixing or suffixing letters, viz: *hēel, bōld, mīce, mūse*, etc. It is not necessary to have the children remember that the long vowel mark is called a *macron*. Suffice it that they recognize and are able to interpret the mark when they see it.

Proceeding to the short vowels and their mark, as in *āt*, I drill the class on the sounds, telling them that this mark over the letter (suggesting a little boy with his hat upside

down) always calls for a quick sound. Here as before I develop new letters from the original simple words, illustrating the vowel sound, as *āt, hāt*, etc.

The child is unconscious of the errors which it makes in sounding a letter, and it is easy to teach it to imitate the sounds made by the teacher. With young children I do not teach the names of the diacritical marks. At this stage the value of the mark is more important than the name. All new words are written on the blackboard, marked diacritically, and all silent letters cancelled. Then all words are spelled phonetically. The child is now prepared to study his spelling lesson. The results are very pleasing.

To teach older children I begin with the macron and teach each diacritical mark separately. Since the macron has the greatest number of uses it will require eight or ten weeks to master its uses.

In connection with diacritical marking I would encourage the child to note the importance of syllabication, and accent. In my opinion the best spelling-book to aid in teaching diacritical marks, syllabication and accent is the "Catholic Speller," published by Benziger Brothers

Things That Educate--In The Larger Sense.

Rt. Rev. John Lancaster Spalding, D. D., Bishop of Peoria.

Address delivered at Cleveland Ohio (Concluded from our March number).

YOU might say Americans are over-active, that the strenuous life is a sort of disease with us, that we forget to live by continually rushing into all manner of enterprises, losing life in seeking the means of living. It is true of Americans as of all human beings that they are indolent. Children do not love to work, they love to play. Of course, the best thing for children is to play, but in the country, not in the city. The country is the natural home of man. But when you begin to withdraw them from play and put them to work, what a tedious process it is! This is what wears the lives out of teachers, making teaching really the most onerous of all duties. Savages do not love to work. Take the North American Indian; he looks upon work as degradation. With all our efforts and all our expenditures of money we never have taught him to love work. It is degrading to work. If anybody works, let the squaw work; that is the Indian's idea. It is the idea of barbarians as well as savages. Our ancestors spent their time chiefly in butchering one another, and if they happened to have a little recreation from killing, they went fishing and hunting, and murdering, but not to work. If there was digging and plowing and sowing and reaping to be done, the woman did it. It was the business of man to fish and hunt and murder. They hated work. The knight of the Middle Ages thought it disgraceful even to be able to write. His hand should grasp the sword, not the pen. The pen was the instrument of clerks and menials. It was an ignoble instrument. What a perverted idea, all from unwillingness to work, from unwillingness to acquire any habit of unremitting industry. Work is the essential thing, and it is easy to teach men to love manual work; that is, it is easy in comparison with teaching them to love work of the mind. The old Greek proverb is that to act is easy, to think difficult. This is a complete truth; to act is easy. It is easy to sweep the room, to kindle the fire, to harness the horse, to plow and sow, and forge the iron. To do all these things is easy, and to keep on doing them is easy. If the work is made at all attractive, a man loves to do what he sees growing under his hand, what he sees becoming a thing conformable to his idea, and he loves to do what promises him reward. For instance, the farmer is rewarded, if he be a true farmer, by the sight of his ripening grain, by the young of his domestic animals.

The great evil against which we have to contend in our manufacturing age is that no man does any kind of complete work. He does part of the work. He doesn't make anything wholly or entirely. He makes the nail, he makes this part of the leather or the shoe; he does this or that. No human being can take delight in this. It becomes utter drudgery, it degrades man, and a part of the discontent

and restlessness of our working people today is because they are doing work which is not educational, which stunts them, arrests their growth. A man cannot work for money alone, as he cannot live by bread alone. He must work for the joy, the deep satisfaction which comes to him when he feels that he has done something exceptionally well, that he has done something which is his own, that hardly another could do with such perfection. That is almost impossible in the factory life of our nation. And consequently, what have we to do to make that factory life compatible with education? We have to shorten the hours, to raise the wages as far as the general conditions permit; and we have above all to enlighten and moralize the working people themselves, so that when they have leisure they will spend it, not in degrading drink and debauchery, not in lethargic sloth, but in their own self-improvement. This we have to do.

Now, play educates also. I was talking about the difficulty of working with the mind. What numbers of universities and colleges and high schools we have in the United States! What a vast number of professional men have gone through these institutions, lawyers, doctors, ministers and priests! - Now, as I was saying, the purpose of all these institutions is to teach men to know how to work, and to love work, not with the hands--because the work they are appointed to do is work of the mind--but to give them such a habit of working with the mind as the farmer has of working with his hands; to give them a thirst for mental activity, to give them a curiosity to know whatever may be known that concerns their professional life; and since a man is always narrow, if he is only professional, to give them a wide curiosity to know whatever is worth knowing. How many of them do it? They come out of the colleges and universities and seminaries, and they get into ruts and routines. They become newspaper and magazine readers, mechanical men. They do not keep themselves alive in their intellectual being, because they shrink from work. It is harder to think. Reading is not thinking at all, I suppose that 99-100 of the reading we do is dissipation. It nourishes habits of thoughtlessness; it is superficial. This is the tendency of the reading of novels, newspapers and magazines. It depends upon the reader, in fact, more than upon what he reads. But the real reader will not read things that do not stimulate to self-activity. You must learn how to read, throw yourself into it; and then in order that you may know what you know and what you think, you must write it. This is one of the most difficult things in the world. I am not talking of mechanical writing, writing by the yard, simply because it is your business to write, as it is your business to hammer

and plow. Among the Greeks, the Athenians—because it was only in Athens really that this high development took place—it seemed as easy to work with the mind as it is for other people to work with the hands. Now, that little city of Attica accomplished more than all of the rest of the world, because the boys, as Plato says, learned with such eagerness that it was impossible not to believe that they were repeating what they had learned in some other life. We cannot get our boys to do that. We can get them to love football much easier than to love anything else, and until we can so fashion our institutions, our schools, from the primary to the university, that we shall fill the young with an eagerness to use their minds, and enable them to take real, genuine delight in thinking, in knowing, feeling that it is a blessed thing to know anything, whether you can put it to use or not, we cannot develop the supreme power. What is it that has enabled the civilized races to dominate the earth? What has enabled a few thousand British soldiers to hold in subordination a hundred million Hindoos? Is it the superior body? Not at all; it is the superior mind. What enabled us to subdue the North American Indians, to dig the coal from the earth, to tunnel the mountains, and to ride victorious over the ocean and the lakes? It is the mind of man that invented every machine, discovered all the knowledge that enriches the mind. Among savages it is the strong physical man who is the leader, as amongst boys the great physical bully is the great hero. But as civilization progresses, men come to realize that strength of mind belongs to a world of infinitely deeper potency and reality than strength of body. Strength of body is greater in the lion and the horse and other animals than in man. But the strength of man is in the mind. Now, since we love strength, and we do love strength—it is a glorious thing to have a giant's strength, as Shakespeare says, but tyrannous to use it like a giant—why not cultivate that superior form of strength which is mental vigor and patience, inure the mind to labor so that it shall become a habit? If the mind be allowed to remain inactive, the man becomes like a drunkard without his dram, the gambler without his game. That is what the schools teach, to love the work of the mind.

Then we must go on. I suppose that a really active mind does not need any kind of game. But I imagine that state is reached by few, when a little corner with a book is worth all the games that men ever invented or played, and the solitude of one's own room is sweeter than all the theatrical exhibitions. We must have play, but the play to be rational ought to be educational. Of course the games played in college are largely educational. Anything that develops strength, agility, vigor of body, is good. To be a strong healthy animal is good; and if they do not turn the youths away from higher things, if they do not destroy in them the passion for mental activity, these games are good if they are not carried to excess. But there are many games, many ways of amusement. Some old writer in the Middle Ages said the English were never so sad as when they were at their games and that they were most melancholy and most serious when at play. I think it is often so with us, too, when we play. We do not know how to amuse ourselves. I don't suppose there is any game that has caused more loss of time than cards. Cards were invented for an idiotic king. (Laughter and applause.) And yet, if we knew simply how to talk, it would be better to talk; if we knew simply how to dream, it would be more pleasant to dream; it would be better to take a walk in the fresh air.

Need I say that art educates? One of the great parts of life is the joy that comes to us from cultivating a sense of the beautiful. I suppose that this is a sense in which we Americans are lacking. We are not an artistic people. We are neither beautiful in ourselves nor have we the faculty of creating beauty. (Laughter.) But beauty plays a great part in life. Life, to be realized as good, must be realized as joy, as happiness, as delight, as sweetness. Now, it is beauty that brings all this home to us; and when we ourselves have that glow within us which

makes us capable of loving the beautiful, the good, the fair, then life rises to its very highest power of rewarding us with its richest gifts.

Now, this can be cultivated. Nothing is more susceptible of cultivation than taste. Poetry has fallen into contempt, poetry ceases to be recommended even by serious minds. There is nothing, except religion, that can give us the deep delight that can come from the love of poetry. The deepest thoughts, most divinely expressed, are found in the great poets. They have the power of exalting the imagination until it seems to dwell in the remotest stars and ages, and to be home everywhere. It is in the nature of art as of knowledge to emancipate, to enlarge.

This is one of the educational influences of travel. Travel is one of the things that educate. You will never forget the scenes that you have looked upon. They become part of you. All your soul is dyed with the colors of the beautiful scenes and noble monuments of divine beauty scattered through nature. So that one who has traveled with an eye awakened to beauty in his room can see the Rhine, with its vine-clad hills, its castled ruins. He can behold the snow-clad mountains of Switzerland lifting their white heads into the eternal azure sky. He can see the ocean heaving with storms that roll from the tropics to the poles. He can see the flowers in the springtime, when all the earth is snow-clad. He can see the great cathedrals of the world—York, Westminster Abbey, Cologne, Strasburg, Milan, St. Peter's. They all go with him wherever he is. He does not see them as in a photograph; they accompany him and follow him. He looks out upon the bay of Naples with its wonderful beauties of water and of sky. He goes from Salerno to Terracina, seeing thousands of little fishing boats, like twins, linked together, dragging their nets. He looks out from Athens upon the island-studded sea of Greece. He can see the whole earth that he has once seen. He can never be lonesome; life cannot be dull or monotonous for him. He looks upon great paintings—Raphael's Madonna, the Ascension in the Vatican, the Apollo Belvedere, the Moses of Michelangelo—Europe is full of these things that appeal to us. If we are not sluggish animals, there is the power in education to give us enjoyment, exaltation, a sense of beauty, of freedom. The mere consciousness that we have seen the fairest, the noblest and divinest, that we have read the purest and sweetest, that we have known the noblest men and women who have ever lived—what an infinite privilege is that! As Ruskin says, "Who would talk with his stableboy, when he might converse with kings and queens?" We all love to be brought into intimate contact with noble natures, with enlightened minds, high imaginations, pure and elevating associations. Now, it may happen that we can, but if we could make the acquaintance of some great philosopher or poet, he would not have time to talk to us. He would bore us and we would bore him, and find him not at all satisfactory. But work yourself into what was his real life, into the thought and life that made him what he was, work your way into his great book, the book of power and vitality, and you will learn to know him better than those who lived under the same roof with him and sat at the same table. And we can do this, if we will cultivate a taste for literature. Reading in this way, little by little, we can become familiar with all the saints, sages and philosophers. That is something that educates.

Now, I have been speaking about things that educate. The institutions that educate are the home, civil society, the state, the church, the school. The school is but incidental in education. Some of the men that have played the greatest part in life have not known how to read or write. Some great peoples have been illiterate; in fact, having all the people read and write is a modern thing, and it is a great thing, undoubtedly. Ignorance is a curse, ignorance and sin, and whatever dispels ignorance is unquestionably good and most desirable. But I am not going to attempt to develop what I should love to say about the education of the school, civil society, the state and the church.

But let me say, first of all, that the home is the fundamental and indispensable institution of all educational institutions. Isolated man is pitiable, weak, contemptible. He becomes man only when he is thrown into some kind of society. Take an infant, take a child six years old and isolate that child, separate it from the rest of mankind. There are two or three instances in Europe, where children have been lost in the woods and grown up with the animals, and when found they were like the animals, were animals, eating wild roots and grasses, unable to utter any intelligible word, with none of the attributes of human beings. And in the case of one of them, after long efforts it was hardly possible to teach him anything, to bring out the human qualities.

It is society that educates. Alone man could not survive at all. The offspring of many animals would survive almost without care; certainly the fishes would, and the ducks swim very soon. But the human child would die at once if there were not hands of intelligence and love to receive it. When it is one year old it would die, or two years old; and if you took a lot of boys and girls ten or twelve years old, and put them on an island and left them alone, they would all die or become savages.

Now, the first element of society is imparted to us by the home, and man's superiority in the world is made possible by his prolonged infancy and childhood. This is a thought which has been sufficiently developed. If the human child, like the offspring of the horse or the ox or the swine, could take care of itself when it was, say six months old, do you suppose there would be any education possible? The human race would never have risen above the animal condition, had it not been kept in servitude through so many years of infancy. It is out of our weakness, then, that our strength comes.

Now, what does the home do, in this long period of infancy? It teaches us the elements of everything. We get our language from the home—our mother tongue. I don't think any man was ever thorough master of a language who did not learn it from his mother. We can chatter it from his mother. We can chatter like waiters in restaurants, speak six languages and not know any at all. We learn to stand upright—what infinite pains have been taken to make us stand on our feet—to utter, to pronounce—and hardly any of us ever do learn how to pronounce correctly—to be polite, to restrain our appetites and instincts out of respect for others, to be obedient. Whence comes the power to love? It comes from the mother's loving heart and the father's loving mind. If we have not learned to love in the home, we shall never know how to love. In fact, all love, I may say, begins with the love of kindred; first the love of the mother and the father, and the brothers and sisters—kinship. And then, in the earliest stages, the tribe, the clan, the same blood, the same parentage. And if that love is lacking in us, if we have not learned to love our own home, our father and mother and brothers and sisters, it is absurd to talk about loving our country, about loving the church, about loving God. If the home, then, fails to do this primal work, the whole process of education will issue in failure. I will not say that there may not be exceptions, I talk of what is law. You may judge of a people's wisdom by the life of its homes, by the way it founds its homes. You may judge of young people, whether they have sense or are the victims of folly, by the way they marry. The most awful responsibility human beings ever take is that which they assume when they pledge their lives to each other in wedlock before the altar, the most awful, and they do it as they buy a horse or rent a house! And therefore the world is full of matrimonial infelicities and divorces, of which only a little part ever comes to the public. That is what the home is. If we had homes where the fathers and mothers were educated people, were profoundly religious people, equipped with all that our civilization and our religion can impart, then the school would be only indeed an incidental thing, would be hardly needed at all. And if

we could organize society upon a rational basis, undoubtedly innumerable human beings would be prevented from marrying, would not be allowed to marry until they had proven they were worthy to marry. Should a drunkard, an idiot or a tramp marry? Not as it seems to me! No.

Now, civil society, by offering opportunities of all kinds, makes the vocations, the trades, opens up to us a thousand ways of gaining a livelihood, of educating ourselves, and of contributing to the general welfare. What we have here with us comes from the work of a thousand hands. Who made the watch, the springs? Who fashioned the clothes? From what vast regions all these things have been gathered by the work of innumerable hands, each doing his own work, finding satisfaction in it and contributing to the general good? It helps to make us united, helps to make us feel that we are not independent. The most foolish thing a man can talk about is to talk about his independence. I used to think it the finest thing on earth to talk of independence and to be independent. It is the part of a fool. We depend upon the sun for heat and light, on the stars to keep the balance of all the boundless space, on the rains of spring, the frosts of autumn, on the soil that bears the grain, upon the civil society that makes all work possible, upon the state, upon the Church that keeps us near to God, upon our friends and relations. The more dependent we are, the more we recognize our independence. To think that things exist separately is absurd. You say that tree yonder is a separate thing? Look, and you see it is rooted in the soil, draws its nourishment from the soil. The soil is held by the rocks beneath it, and the earth itself is held by the sun, and that by the system of the heavens. All things are bound together, from Adam to man, all are inter-related. And therefore no one who is wise lives for himself. We live for others. Education is a process of self-restraint. Go away from yourself, stop thinking about yourself, help somebody, strengthen somebody, encourage somebody, feed somebody, guide somebody along the way that leads to noble ends.

Oh, unquestionably, this subject is one which I can barely touch upon in these closing words. I would say that the Church, which makes religion, brings it near to us, makes it live, educates our faculty for faith, for hope, and for divine love—that is the greatest of educational institutions. For my own part, I should look upon the whole thing as a tale told by an idiot, if I did not believe in God. We go back and we see this globe of ours swinging blindly in space, a molten mass—we need not go back to the star-dust—a molten mass swinging in space, not a living thing upon it, not even a blade of grass. Then we look forward; if nature has its way, if no intervention takes place, we look forward and see this earth a frozen rock, no living thing left upon it. The sun has ceased to give enough light to nourish life, everything vegetable and animal is dead. Now, between this blind, swinging, molten mass of matter, and that cold, frozen rock, here comes this little race and lives for thousands of years, coming out of nothing, sinking into nothing. I say it is not worth while, it is a mockery, there is nothing in it. Religion comes and tells us that we cannot hold a doubt that the Power that lighted within our minds the thought of immortality, of everlasting life, and awakened there ideals of perfection, of truth, of beauty, of goodness—that Power, who is essential life, is not the God of the dead, but the God of the living; that having illumined us once, the light of His countenance will never cease to shine upon us. Drawing nearer and nearer to Him by goodness, by modesty, by chastity, by obedience, by gentleness, by unselfishness, by all the virtues which our religion inculcates, it becomes an end in itself to know that God is always with us and that we shall always live with Him. This gives value to humanity, this can awaken enthusiasm for the progress of the race, for the development of all those qualities and virtues which education makes possible.

Drawing and Construction Work

Free Hand Paper Cutting in Primary Schools

OLIVE WILLS.

Design

For this work the pupils should be able to use the scissors with some proficiency and should have had several lessons in cutting of simple objects, fruits, etc.

The first lesson in design will be making a border.

The pupils have no doubt become quite familiar with the tablets, squares, circles and several of the simple forms.

To each pupil six one-inch squares of paper. The engine or the coated colored paper would be most interesting to use for this. A pair of scissors; no pencils. From three of the squares cut circles one inch in



Fig 4

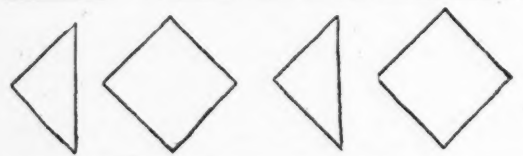


Fig 5

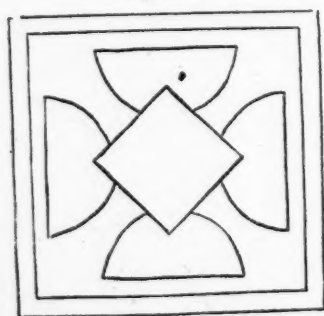


Fig 6

diameter. A part of the room cut the circle, making semi-circles. Others cut the squares to make triangles. To each pupil give two one-quarter strips of paper for border lines; lay them parallel, about one and a half inches between the lines; lay borders with the colored tablets just cut. Encourage the pupils to try several ways, but lead them to use care in placing, that both the symmetry and design may be pleasing. Teach alternation suggestions, Figs. 4 and 5.

These tablets may also be arranged as ornaments, Fig. 6.

Have several large leaves pinned on one large piece of paper. Number each leaf. Tell the pupils you will now have a guessing game. The word game appeals to children. Each pupil is to cut one leaf. Call several up in front, one at a time, each holding his cutting, whisper to the teacher which number it is, then have the school guess which it is. This will prove an interesting lesson and will rouse the pupils to look more carefully at the objects they cut from.

Continue this work for designing, giving to each pupil a leaf or a flower; this they are to cut free-hand, no tracing. Of course some will do better than others; give to the slower pupils the very simple, lilac, poplar or apple leaf.

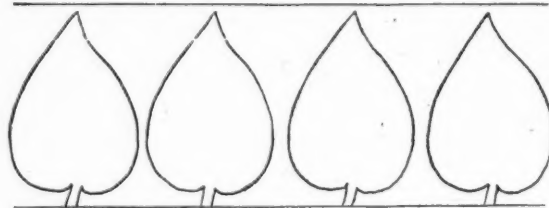


Fig 7

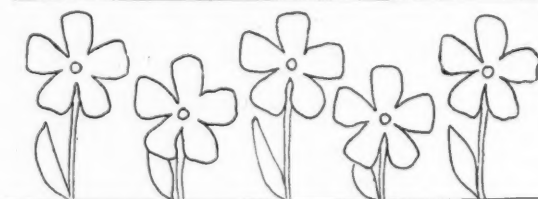


Fig 8

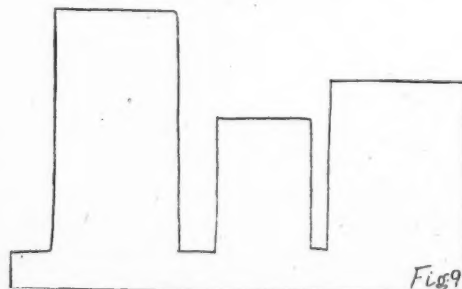


Fig 9

When each has cut one good one, give fresh white paper or colored paper to each child; they lay their good cuttings on this paper and trace around it and cut out, making several just alike; these arrange as borders. Repetition, Figs. 6 and 7.

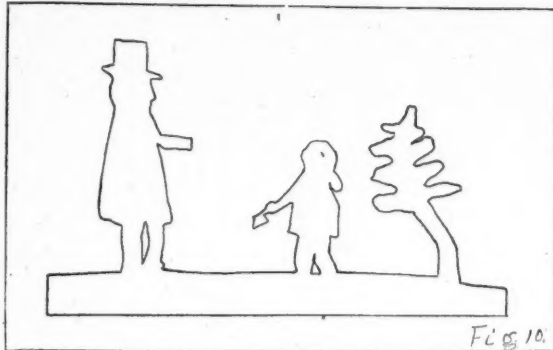
Ornaments also can be made.

The teacher will often cut before the children, always without clipping the paper any more than possible. It can most always be done in one piece.

In pasting use only a very little in the middle of each unit.

Story Illustrating With Scissors

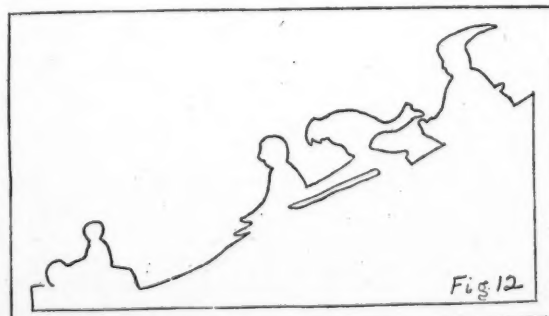
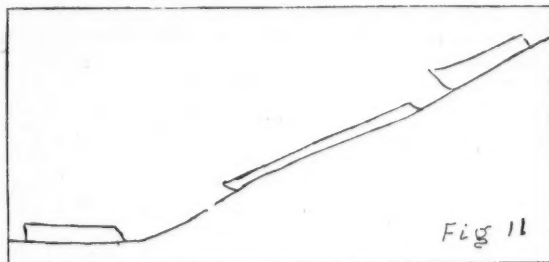
Tell the children some simple story or lead them to tell you some story they know. Red Riding Hood, Little Boy Blue, or George Washington and the Cherry Tree. It is also interesting to make pictures illustrative of the holidays and of seasons, St. Valentine's Day, Christmas, winter season or birds in the spring.



For this lesson we will take the story of George Washington and the Cherry Tree. After the story has been told ask some such questions as these: What will you have in your picture, children? Answers: George Washington with his hatchet. George's father. The cherry tree.

Which will be the larger, George or the father? Is the tree standing or partly chopped down?

At the blackboard the teacher will show how to arrange the picture, Fig. 8. From part 1 cut the father; part 2, cut George; part 3, the cherry tree.



Talk about how each would look. Would the father have on a hat? A short or a long coat?

Have a boy stand before the class and call attention to size, proportion, etc.

Fig. 10 shows the picture finished as cut by a child in the first grade.

Another interesting subject would be a winter's day.

Talk about the hill, sled and boys and girls dressed for coasting. The teacher at the board draws a plan of the picture, Fig. 11, showing the slope of the hill, position of a sled at the top, one going down, one at the foot of the hill. Fig. 12, picture as completed by first grade pupil.

Cut mittens, shoes, sleds, snowflakes and boys shoveling snow. Have the object to work from when possible.

Many other stories and illustrations will suggest themselves to the teacher.

"The world is so full of a number of things,
I am sure we should all be happy as kings."

Drawing Helps

THEODORE C. HAILES, DRAWING MASTER IN THE ALBANY, N. Y.,
PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Working Drawings

There are two methods used in teaching working drawings, the orthographic projection and the view methods. The former is altogether too technical for the lower public schools, so we will use the latter. Begin with simple type-forms. Take the square prism, cylinder and sphere. Every child should have one of each on his desk. If they look directly down upon the upright square prism they will see nothing but a square. This is called a top view, and it gives the interpretation of all the horizontal distances on the model. It should be sketched freehand. The top view of the upright cylinder will be a circle and the top view of the sphere will also be a circle. They also should be sketched. To obtain the front view of the models they should be held at arm's length directly on a level with the eye. The front view of the upright square prism, with one of the faces toward the observer, is an oblong. The cylinder also gives an oblong and the sphere a circle. The front view gives the interpretation of all the vertical distances as well as the right and left horizontal distances. Children get the idea that the top view of an object is a drawing of the top only and the front view a drawing of the front only. It must be explained to them that the top view is all that one can see when looking directly down upon the model. In the case of the square prism it is true that since the model is the same size all the way down all they can see is the top, but let them view the square pyramid, or, better still, the frustum of a square pyramid. In the latter case they will see the small square on the top, the large square on the base and lines connecting their corners. (See Fig. 1.) A flower-pot in an upright position will show three circles, one for the mouth, one for the bottom and one for the drainage hole. (See Fig. 2.) If the pupil looks closely he will really see two circles at the mouth of the pot, one on the outer and one on the inner edge.

In the case of the front view of the cylinder the pupils will want to put curves on the top and bottom of

the drawing. Tell them to hold the cylinder so that the top is just on a level with the eye and then they will see it straight across. It will help a great deal if the teacher will cut an oblong hole in a piece of stiff paper and show her children that the cylinder will just pass thru and completely fill the opening. It would be well to similarly illustrate other views of different models. When the children understand so far, tell them to turn the upright square prism so that one corner is facing them. Now the top view is a square just as big as it was before, but it is in a different position. Ask them to sketch it. The front view of the upright turned square prism is an oblong as high as the prism and as wide as the diagonal of the square end. The oblong has its long diameter shown.

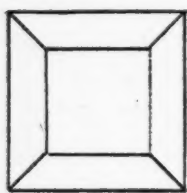


Fig. 1.

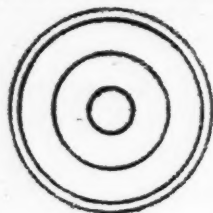


Fig. 2.



Fig. 3.

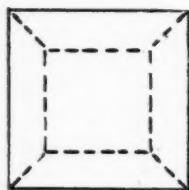


Fig. 4.

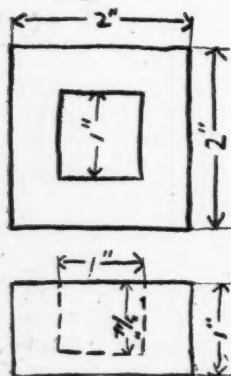


Fig. 5.

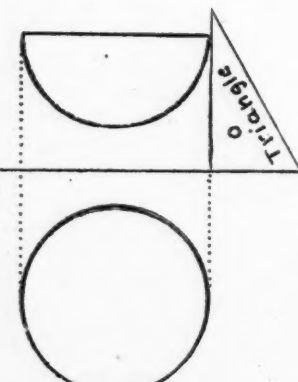


Fig. 6.

(Fig. 3.) Illustrate with the hole in the paper.

Don't expect children will learn the principle of working drawings in one lesson. If you make them understand in a dozen you will do well. The majority of teachers put the sketch upon the blackboard and the children copy it in their books. That is downright

robbery. The very essence of the lesson is lost. There is no individuality, no independence of thought or action, and the child becomes a mere automaton.

Now a working drawing is a matter of knowledge and not wholly of vision, so the next step is to make the pupils understand that the drawings must show all of the facts of the size, position, shape and construction of the object, whether they can be seen or not. Take an inverted square pyramid frustum. The top view will only show a square, but the invisible lines must be added. (Fig. 4.) In the case of the plan of the flower-pot an extra circle must be added to show the size of the outer circle of the bottom. Remember that all invisible parts must be represented by dash lines.

Any view which shows vertical measurements is called an elevation. Those that show only horizontal distance are called plans. Top and bottom views are plans. Front, back and side views are elevations.

The proper way to go to work is to make a freehand shop-sketch showing all the dimensions and then make the careful drawing with instruments from the shop-sketch (Fig. 5). As a rule draw the top view or plan first. If several views are represented place the top view over the front view, the bottom view under the front view, the left view to the left and the right view to the right of the front view and the back view to the right of the right view. All drawing teachers do not approve of the above arrangement, but it is best understood by children. All views should be properly marked and dimensioned. Since in the lower schools working drawings are made without the use of drawing board and T square, the first thing to do is to draw a horizontal line that will serve as a working line. (See Fig. 6.) From this line draw perpendiculars by means of a triangle made of wood, cardboard or stiff paper. Obtain the front view from the top view and get the right and left views from the front view.

Here is a list of simple objects that are easily obtained by the children. Let them work individually and independently, only helping when necessary. The objects may be drawn full size or to a larger scale. Nail, bolt, spool, nut, cup, jar, clothes-pin, chalk, pencil, rule, eraser, slate, pencil-box, table-knife, awl, funnel, candle, saltcellar, bottle, doorknob, flower-pot, saucer, ink-well, lamp-chimney, pipe.

The next article will be on isometric drawing.

Inexpensive Picture Mats

Many of the colored supplements to Sunday newspapers are reproductions of famous paintings. Such pictures as "The Song of the Lark," "A Street in Venice," "Sunset" and "The Ship at Sea" make unusually attractive schoolroom decorations when placed about four inches from the upper edge of the blackboard. Two small touches of library paste will hold the picture in place.

After placing the pictures at least two feet apart break off a bit of crayon an inch and a half or two inches long (depending entirely on the picture to be framed) and using the side of the crayon draw an even border or mat about each picture. Be very careful to keep an even gray mark so that the finished mats do not have a chalky appearance.

A bright picture against the black and gray background is always much more interesting than when tacked on the wall or framed in a cheap binding. Besides, the pictures and mats can be easily changed from time to time.—Cora Livingstone.

Language and Reading.

Reading

If pupils are unable to pronounce the words correctly I think the reason is that they do not spell the whole word in their mind before pronouncing it—that is, they glance at the first and second letter, or first syllable, and guess at the rest.

A pupil attended my school last winter who pronounced about every other word incorrectly. I watched him closely daily to see if there was some means by which his reading might be improved. I studied the child for some time to see wherein the difficulty lay, and tried various devices to improve his reading. The pupil was by no means the brightest member of the class. He was sixteen years of age, yet some of the pupils that were only twelve years of age could read better than he.

After trying many devices that were of no avail I tried the following, which proved successful: I assigned him a very short lesson, including in the assignment that he should learn to spell every word and be able to define it. The next day when I called upon him to read I told him to spell every word mentally before pronouncing it. I noticed at once that this plan was successful. He read a sentence without making a mistake, which was quite an encouragement to me. Of course he read very slowly at first, but he soon began to make rapid progress. As soon as he would make a mistake I would have him spell the word and then pronounce it. In a few days he was able to read a paragraph correctly. At the time he was able to read a paragraph I would let him read to a mistake. He made rapid progress the rest of the term, and by the end of the term he was able to read quite well.—E. H. E.

Grammar in Literature

One of the greatest needs of pupils of the grammar grades (and may I say of some teachers?) is a practical knowledge of grammar. Many pupils will take up the subject of etymology and apparently make a thorough study of the parts of speech, memorizing, defining and parsing all the various forms of nouns, verbs, etc., yet when they have finished you may put a simple piece of literature in their hands and ask them to give the construction of each word and a large per cent of them will fail. All words which they studied under the noun they will call nouns and fail to see that their use in the sentence determines their part of speech. Some method should be used to overcome this. The following has been successful:

Do not carry your grammar work into your literature class and thus destroy the beauty and interest of it, but take a simple piece of literature into your grammar class, close your grammars and place each pupil on his or her knowledge of the subject and study

carefully the construction of each word. Your pupils will soon learn to work independent of a book and secure a more practical knowledge of grammar.—J. F. Groves.

Prompt Work and Better Writing

With the desire to encourage promptness and improve the writing the children are permitted to write on the board. They leave their seats when all work is finished, taking a space at the board. Then the day's copy is carefully written.

They never seem to tire of blackboard writing, and therefore endeavor to finish their work promptly that they may have the opportunity of getting to the blackboard. Some children, naturally slow, by this means get their work finished promptly.

They are careful to do neat work at their seats, as they forfeit their places at the board if careless work is discovered.

The practice at the board gives the children a free and easy arm movement. The arm movement, as all teachers know, is not so easily acquired at the desks.

Children appreciate the fact that they are trusted to leave their seats, if they wish, when their work is finished.

In going to and from their seats they try hard not to disturb the other exercises which are going on at the same time. As a result it can easily be seen how this plan also helps the discipline of a room.

Should any child be writing at the board when his class is called he passes quietly to his seat to be in his place during recitation.

If there are not enough spaces for all the work may be erased as the spaces are needed.—Millie Rodenbaugh.

A Phonic Device

The following device, for the study of phonograms, is greatly enjoyed by my little folks.

Upon cards of oak-tag, 6x9 inches, were written, in letters large enough to be seen across the room, words containing the phonogram to be taught. For example, take "ink;" the cards would have such words as chink, pink, shrink, link, mink, etc. Place the cards upon the blackboard ledge, sound phonogram, and give a minute or so for the class to look at the words; then call on several pupils to run, quietly yet quickly, to the board and take as many of the cards as they are sure they can spell correctly by sound. The one who secures the most cards wins the game. If one fails to give the sounds of the words on cards chosen, another pupil may give the sounds, pronounce the word and take the cards.

For another game with the same cards, have several children, as many as cards if you choose, stand, cards in hand, with their backs to the pupils seated at desks. The teacher or a child then chooses a word and spells it phonetically. The child who holds the card upon which is the word thus spelled raises the card above his head and pronounces the word. If the pupil holding the card containing the word spelled fails to raise the card and pronounce the word he forfeits the card.—I. M. S.

Number and Arithmetic.

Third Year Number Work

The number work for this month will grow out of the study of gardening and the Arbor Day study.

During the preceding months the children planned the building of a house; now have them lay out a garden, sow seeds and set out plants. Ask them to draw the plan for the garden; find areas of the beds and walks. Let them make problems concerning the number of plants required.

Ask pupils to measure their home gardens and use these dimensions in problems. Encourage them to make gardens of their own.

Plan an orchard of fruit trees. Let children decide upon number and kind of trees. Problems concerning number of rows; number of trees in a row.

Continue drills on the combinations of numbers.

Construct and repeat the ninth table.

Continue addition, subtraction and multiplication of higher numbers.

Continue notation and numeration of numbers.

Teach short division.

Problems

A garden is 32 ft. wide and 40 ft. long. Draw to the scale 1 inch to 8 feet. Find area and perimeter.

A square garden is 12 yards long. Draw to the scale one-fourth inch to the yard. Find area and perimeter.

Blanche's garden is 100 ft. long and 50 ft. wide. What is the area? the perimeter?

Class Work

Length of garden,	70 ft.
Width of garden,	35 ft.
35	70
70	35
2450	210
Area of garden,	2450 sq. ft.
Perimeter of garden,	210 ft.

—Third School Year.

Devices for Number Work

I.

I found what I call the domino plan very helpful, and it can be used before the children are well acquainted with the figures.

Get heavy manila paper or bristol board cut in pieces about eight inches by four inches and with black watercolors or ink draw a line thru the center, dividing it into squares. Then with some bright watercolors, red preferable, paint round spots about the size of a dime on each side, making regular dominoes. If you have no watercolors cut the spots from bright-colored paper and paste them on the cards.

Hold the cards before the class a moment, then remove. At first they can only tell how many spots on

each side, perhaps, but later they can give combinations. Four combinations can be given:

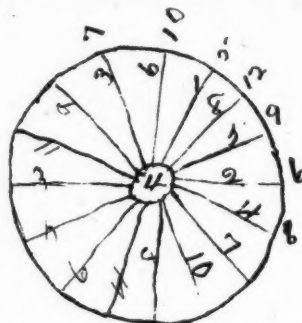
• •	•	•
• •	•	•

$$4 + 2 = 6 \quad 6 - 2 = 4$$

$$2 + 4 = 6 \quad 4 - 2 = 2$$

II.

Another plan which I use for busy work is the wheel which was spoken of in your paper, but putting the



numbers on the spokes of the wheel and requiring the children to put the answer on the circumference.

This can be used in addition, subtraction or multiplication.—Ethel Jones.

Arithmetical Sanity

JOSEPH V. COLLINS.

The superintendent should go thru the arithmetic in use with a blue pencil. He should see to it that problems involving large numbers are not too numerous, that greatest common divisor as a special topic is thrown out, that lowest common multiple is put into addition of fractions, that longitude and time is turned over to geography, taxes, duties and customs to civil government, and that a vast deal of matter commonly given in denominate numbers is forcibly ejected. Thus all of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division of compound denominate numbers should be marked delete, as also all problems which involve quantities expressed in more than two denominations. Such a problem as Reduce 2 mi. 30 rds. 5 yds. 2 ft. 5 in. to inches is as absurd as Munchausen history. It is evidently the product of some schoolmaster's disordered invention, and not of actual experience. Such, however, is the force of custom that numerous problems of this type are to be found in most arithmetics to this day. In actual life most quantities are expressed in one denomination, some in two, and a few in three, but none in five. The superintendent should draw his blue pencil thru all the tables of denominate numbers, except avoirdupois weight and linear, square, cubic, dry and liquid and time measures, and all problems under them.—Educational Review.

Give fools their gold; give knaves their power;

Let fortune's bubbles rise and fall;

Who sows a field, or trains a flower,

Or plants a tree, is more than all.

—J. G. Whittier.

Geography and History.

Special Days

In many of the town schools "extra day" has become a permanent practice and is proving very useful, and our rural schools need this day more than the town schools. Wednesday is about the best day for it, and on this day have the geography classes draw maps of the countries studied for the week and make a special study that day of some product of the country, placing an outline of it on the board, and if board room permits leave it on a week, until the next product is taken up. This fixes the facts in the children's minds.

Make drawings in watercolor, ink and charcoal—something appropriate for the season. In looking over the educational papers one usually finds something appropriate.

Then take up the study of the author whose birthday is nearest, and, if a poet, have children learn some of his poems, and read to them of him and from his works.

Also learn the seasonable songs on this day; in fact, do all the extra work on this day, and you will find that the children's education will broaden and develop wonderfully as a result of this one day; besides, it rests them and makes the work of the other four days move more enthusiastically.—Mabel E. Walter.

Study of Transcontinental Railroads

This topic is to be introduced by reference to the civilizing effect of inventions which make intercommunication easier (e. g., the importance of railroads in a large country like ours where the various physical differences would tend to cause sectional and dialectic variations unless there be constant intercourse).

The great service of the transcontinental roads in (1) enabling the population of the overcrowded East to move westward (compare present conditions with the means of travel in '49); and in (2) developing the region west of the Mississippi as an agricultural area by affording the means of transporting the products to the eastern and European markets. Another influence of the transcontinental railroad on the development of the continent is to be seen in the rapid growth of some of the western cities which are situated on the line of the larger railroads and which have thus become centers of distribution for the products of the great central plain.

The story of the building of the great transcontinental railroad is instructive as showing the physical difficulties that had to be overcome and in this way showing the change in the character of the land thru which the railroad passes. The points to be noticed in this narrative are these: (1) The fact that after

the line had been surveyed and the plans completed it was decided to begin at both extremities at once and have the two sections meet; (2) under ordinary conditions the point where this meeting would take place should have been somewhere midway between the Atlantic and Pacific; (3) the actual meeting point was hundreds of miles west of this theoretic point, almost in the heart of the Rocky Mountain region; (4) the reason for this evidently lies in the fact that the section from the Atlantic coast to the beginning of the great Pacific highland is comparatively level, while the rest of the distance is very mountainous and irregular; (5) finally, this points to the greater necessity for tunneling, etc., in the western section of the railroad, and thus to the greater expense and slower progress in the building of the road.—N. Y. Teachers' Monographs.

How the Nation Is Governed

E. A. M.

The Supreme Court

Heretofore these articles have dealt with the executive department of the government, following that in regular order from the president, the chief executive, on down thru the departments, in the order of presi-



SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES.
Chief Justice Fuller.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Justice Brown. | 5. Justice Holmes. |
| 2. Justice McKenna. | 6. Justice Peckham. |
| 3. Justice Harlan. | 7. Justice Day. |
| 4. Justice Brewer. | 8. Justice White. |

dential succession, to the newest of them all, the department of commerce and labor.

Turn now to another of the three great branches of our government, the judiciary, at the head of which

is the supreme court, consisting of a chief justice and eight associate justices, appointed by the president with the consent of the senate. That these justices may be independent of political and other influences the constitution, which Gladstone pronounced "the most perfect document ever written by man at a single time," provides that they shall hold their offices during good behavior, equivalent, of course, to life terms, and shall receive a compensation that shall not be diminished during their continuance in office. Last year congress fixed the salary of the chief justice at \$13,000 per annum and that of associate justices at \$12,000.

Term of Office

Justice Brewer thus discusses the life term of the judges of the United States courts in that notable new work on our government, "The Ship of State" (Ginn & Co.):

The idea of permanence is, of course, offensive to those who change their opinion at every election and whose great objection to the decalog or the Sermon on the Mount is that they are old and have never been rewritten for modern use. Perhaps the fact of permanence will not seem so awful when the average length of the judicial lives of the supreme court justices is known. Outside the present members, the length of whose stay on the bench is an uncertain quantity, the official lives of the justices have averaged not quite fifteen years and six months, not so long as the term of office of the judges of the supreme court of Pennsylvania, which is twenty-one years, and only a trifle longer than that of the justices of the court of appeals of New York State, which is fourteen years.

Of the eight chief justices the distinguished John Marshall served the longest term. Next to his was that of his successor, Roger B. Taney, who rendered the famous Dred Scott decision, of which it has been said: "Since Moses established a judiciary no decision has made such a disturbance. It outraged the conscience of mankind." Chief Justice Taney claimed that he did not make the law; he simply interpreted it. Of course the decision was approved by the majority of the court, tho he alone had to suffer its obloquy. His singularly pure life appeared to count for nothing beside the infamy of that decision covering many pages, which the nation summed up to mean: "The black man has no rights the white man is bound to respect."

Third in length of service is the present chief justice. John Rutledge, the second chief justice, served the shortest term, not a year.

A Session of the Court

Just at noon five days out of every week from October to May except at the Christmas and Easter holidays the crier enters the courtroom and announces: "The honorable chief justice and the associate justices of the supreme court of the United States." Everybody, visitors and lawyers, stand. Then nine dignified old gentlemen robed in black silk and led by the chief justice enter the room and, taking their positions before their chairs, bow to the spectators and lawyers. When this salutation is returned all are seated. The crier then opens court by saying:

Oyez! Oyez! Oyez! All persons having business with the honorable the supreme court of the United

States are admonished to draw near and give their attendance, as the court is now sitting. God save the United States and this honorable court.

After this quaint little speech, seeming curiously out of place in these twentieth century days of summons by telegraph and telephone and other modern inventions, the business of the honorable the supreme court of the United States begins and continues until half-past four, when the justices gather their silken robes about them and depart to examine briefs and records and to prepare opinions. Quietly these justices work, realizing that their unseen work must have a powerful tho silent influence upon the destiny of the republic. A notable instance of this kind is the famous merger case, recently decided, full accounts of which were given in *The Week's Current* of March 19.

Saturday of each week is conference day, when the supreme court holds no open sessions, but cases are discussed by the justices. Each one is expected to be prepared to express his opinion. After a case has been fully discussed the chief justice calls the roll for a vote on the case. Saturday night after the conference is over the chief justice assigns the decided cases to different justices for opinions, and no one knows on what case he may be called to prepare the opinion.

After a justice has prepared an opinion with reference to the views of the majority, as he learned them in conference, backed by such arguments and citations of authority as he deems necessary, his written opinion is set up in type and nine copies are printed, one for each justice, who studies the case and returns such suggestions, objections and criticisms as he thinks best. Often so many are made that the original opinion is entirely rewritten. Then the case must come up again in conference; thus a case is sometimes continued from week to week in conference. A notable example of this is the recently decided merger case, one of a great legal trinity rendered within the last ten years, and all decided by a majority of one vote, the first being the income tax decision, the second the settlement of the insular cases and the third the merger case, which defines the power of congress to prevent all combinations in restraint of trade.

Personnel of the Court

Is the oft-repeated expression, "the honorable the supreme court of the United States" nothing but an empty form? By no means. Americans can well be proud of the singular purity and uprightness of the private lives of these truly honorable gentlemen. Many of them have been humble and devout Christians. Some of the present justices are among the active church workers of Washington. At the recent centennial of the Bible Society Justice Brewer was the principal speaker. He declared that the greatest glory of this nation lay in the fact that always it had striven to translate into the vernacular of international law the parable of the Good Samaritan and the Golden Rule. He said that the poorest way to estimate the value of a life, whether of an individual or an organization, was by numbering the years. "We should count by deeds, not by years. So we celebrate the anniversary of the Bible Society not so much be-

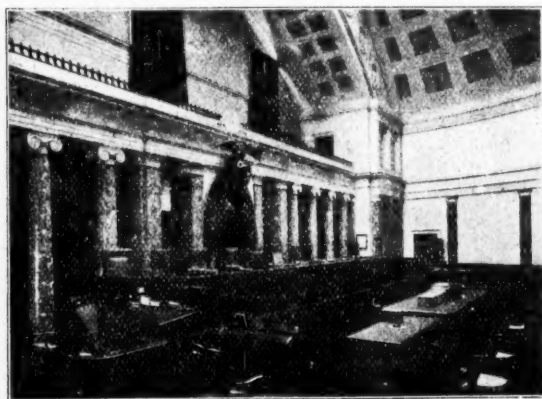
cause it has endured for a century as because of the gigantic good it has accomplished."

The supreme justices of the United States have not only been fair representatives of legal knowledge, but men of staunch patriotism and unquestioned integrity. Of this Justice Brewer has said:

It is worthy of notice that altho there have been more than fifty members of this court, never has the personal integrity of a single one been questioned. Their decisions have sometimes been bitterly attacked, but these attacks were based on opposition to the decisions and not on any question of personal integrity.

The Supreme Court Room

This semicircular hall with low-domed ceiling is unequaled in quiet, harmonious beauty by any other room in the national capitol. It is said to be the handsomest court room in the world. It was designed by Latrobe after the model of a Greek theater. It was formerly the senate chamber. Here Webster replied to Hayne. Here Thomas Benton and old John Ran-



The Supreme Court Room.

dolph of Roanoke made notable speeches. On the left side of this famous chamber stood John C. Calhoun in many a contest with Clay and Webster on the right.

"The bench" of the supreme court consists of nine large leathern chairs standing in a row with that of the chief justice in the center. Here the nine venerable black-robed gentlemen sit quietly listening while a single counsel addresses them, generally in a conversational tone. The noise or roar of the would-be orator would be singularly out of place in that court, however it might be affected or admired by those of limited experience. The supreme court listens to arguments, not uproar.

In front of the justices is a table around which the counsel are seated. Back of the justices are graceful Ionic columns of Potomac marble, the white capitals copied from the temple of Minerva. On the walls are busts of the former chief justices:

John Jay of New York.....	1780-'95
John Rutledge of South Carolina.....	1795-'95
Oliver Ellsworth of Connecticut.....	1796-1800
John Marshall of Virginia.....	1801-'35
Roger B. Taney of Maryland.....	1836-'64
Salmon P. Chase of Ohio.....	1864-'73
Morrison R. Waite of Ohio.....	1873-'88
Melville W. Fuller of Illinois.....	1888—

Important Cities of the World

E. A. M.

Yokohama

If Japan is the "England of Asia," as it is sometimes called, then Yokohama must be its Liverpool, for it is the greatest commercial center of the island empire and a port of call for trans-Pacific trade.

Take your map (The Week's Current War Atlas will show you all the important ocean routes) and observe how the great rivers of China, the Hoangho and the Yangtze, with their vast commercial possibilities, flow toward Japan; while winds and currents make a call at Yokohama almost a necessity for those great ocean liners that ply between the ports of China and those of California, Oregon, Washington and British Columbia. So Yokohama stands as the great way station between the trade and travel of the Far East and our western ports of Vancouver, Tacoma, Seattle, Portland, San Francisco and San Diego, with which it is directly connected by steamship lines.

So, of Japan's thirty-five large cities, Yokohama has the largest trade, a world-wide traffic in some things, silk and tea especially; for Yokohama with its spacious harbor controls more than half the external trade of Japan and in silk is favored by the proximity of the great silk-growing district around Tokio, the capital and most populous city, tho it has no harbor.

From 1863-'69, when disease half-ruined European silkworm culture, Japan was the principal source from which healthy eggs were obtained. Japan then sold so many eggs that for a time her silk industry was seriously impaired; but she has now fully recovered and exports more than 16,000,000 pounds annually, half of which goes out to Europe and the United States thru the port of Yokohama, while this city's tea exports run up into the 30,000,000 pounds each year.

So you are not surprised to find Yokohama is the doorway not merely to Japan but to the trade of the Far East, and that it is more European in appearance than any other city in that country, since it is the center of foreign commerce and the residence of foreign consuls. In fact, foreigners built Yokohama, one of the newest cities in that old world, because of commercial requirements.

Your geographies and histories tell how Japan kept herself isolated from the rest of the world till our own Commodore Perry (1853) induced the Japanese to sign a treaty establishing commercial relations with the United States. Then foreign traders flocked to Japan. Yedo, the capital (Tokio we now call it), had no harbor, but about eighteen miles down the Yedo or Tokio Bay was the treaty port of Kanagawa, on the shore of a small bay since filled in. The foreigners became impatient of the obstructions the Japanese placed in their way to prevent them obtaining ground for warehouses, docks and other commercial necessities, so they went two miles away to the little fishing village of Yokohama and here they erected structures to do a world-wide commerce that transformed the little fishing village into one of the important cities of the world.

Yokohama was built in three distinct sections, it

business district, the Japanese quarter and the foreign residence section on an eminence known as "The Bluff," that is reached by a winding road and a staircase called "The Hundred Steps." On The Bluff are foreign hospitals, the foreign cemetery and several foreign consulates. The houses are numbered in a curious fashion, not at all in the order in which they stand, but in the order in which they were built. As there are now some 30,000 of these you may find No. 24,732 not far from No. 69, and you'd better save your time and strength by hiring a jinriksha, one of those curious big baby carriages of Japan, drawn by men instead of horses, to find your way about on The Bluff; for the jinriksha man knows where to locate the numbers wanted.

You would like to live up there on The Bluff, where you get the cool ocean breeze, while down below in the lower sections of the city you can buy meat and fish and fruit and vegetables at reasonable prices—and the climate, go back to your geography to learn the why of that.

You find Yokohama near latitude 35° north. Turn to the map of the United States and you see Raleigh, N. C., Nashville, Tenn., and Santa Fe, N. M., in about the same latitude. Then you think of Yokohama as being further modified by its proximity to the ocean, and the Japan Current about which your geographies have something to say. So, as this brief lesson about Yokohama may indicate, there is considerable about a place to be "looked up" in the text-books besides what they actually have to say. The next time you read a descriptive article in a magazine note how much the writer has put in that any one might have looked up for himself with the aid of a good map.

The Missouri River

A. D. ALEXANDER.

The Missouri, an Indian word which means "muddy water," is indeed an appropriate name for the largest tributary of the Mississippi, for its swift waters always carry great quantities of washings from the soil over which it flows. Many rivers flow over rocks and sand and their waters are clear, but this one is very different from those on account of the loose soil which forms its river bed.

This river is so long—it is said that it is about 3,000 miles in length from where the Madison fork rises in Yellowstone Park to where the Missouri empties into the Mississippi a few miles above St. Louis—that it might be called the Mississippi itself and that part which rises in Minnesota the branch. If the Missouri flowed in a nearly straight line it would reach farther than from New York to San Francisco.

The Missouri River is formed in the southwestern part of Montana by the union of the Jefferson, Madison and Gallatin Rivers. The Jefferson, a beautiful stream, rises in the mountains on the boundary between Idaho and Montana; the Madison in that wonderful place, Yellowstone Park, and the Gallatin in the mountains in Montana. The Jefferson and Madison first form a junction and within a mile the Galla-

tin joins them. It was in 1805 that Lewis and Clarke, probably the first white men who ever saw this part of our country, discovered and named these streams and decided where the name Missouri should properly be applied to the waters.

The junction of these streams is called Three Forks, and there is a town near by that name. The ground is high here and one has a beautiful view of the wide-spreading valleys of three large streams, expanding fan-like as they retreat to the horizon and presenting a grassy, timbered expanse, with snow-tipped mountains far beyond. One may also see from here the small towns and ranches, the sheep and cattle feeding on the hills and lowlands, and the fields of grain.

Beyond Three Forks the mountains close in again, forming the canyon of the Missouri, very interesting and full of striking views, which extends in varying width and with walls richly colored to the Gate of the Mountains. This is a gorge about six miles long where the rocks rise perpendicularly 1,200 feet from the edge of the stream and sometimes project over the water. When it leaves this canyon one could imagine it is

"Where the river went wandering out so far
Thru a gate in the mountains left ajar."

Farther north on the river is Great Falls, which consists of four cataracts or falls from nineteen to eighty-seven feet high, and others of a few feet in height, all separated by rapids. These falls give splendid power for manufacturing purposes and the city of Great Falls was founded here in 1887. It is an up-to-date city in an agricultural region, and not far away are rich mines of gold, silver, copper, lead and coal. About forty miles beyond is Fort Benton, to which place the river is navigable in high water. From here it flows thru the plains of the spring wheat belt in Montana, being joined near the border between that state and North Dakota by the Yellowstone, a long river of itself, and to which junction the Missouri is navigable in low water.

The river crosses North Dakota in a southeasterly direction and toward the southern part, on the east bank, is the capital of the state, Bismarck, a fine town. The country around it is a high, rolling prairie, with numerous valleys where farming may be carried on. From one of the high hills one can see a beautiful picture of the Missouri as it comes from the far north, heavily wooded on either side, and stretching away toward the south. About ten miles north of Bismarck is a collection of about eighteen Indian mounds, the remains of an Indian village, on a bluff overlooking the river. The Missouri along here rapidly outs away its banks by undermining them, the earth then falling into the water. Bluffs are more common south of Bismarck, and the bed, which looks much like a railroad cut with irregular, ash-colored banks, has a very crooked course.

The next town of any importance is Pierre, capital of South Dakota. The people in this section are engaged in agriculture and stockraising.

Where the Big Sioux joins the Missouri is Sioux City, Iowa, which has a large frontage on the Missouri and a picturesque residence quarter on high bluffs. It is the gateway to South Dakota and the

upper Missouri and Black Hills mining and grazing regions. The city was settled by traders in 1849 and was an important government post during early Indian difficulties.

Farther down the river is Omaha, the metropolis of Nebraska. It is built on a plateau about eighty feet above the river, across which have been built several bridges leading to Council Bluffs, Iowa. Omaha is an important railroad center and has many manufacturing establishments. Here are the machine, car-building and repair shops of the Union Pacific, and among the manufactured products are packed meat, brewed liquors, refined gold and silver, brick, tile, wagons and carriages.

Next of importance is Kansas City, which was laid out in 1830 on the boundary line between Kansas and Missouri. The ground is rolling near the river, but farther back is comparatively level. At one time Leavenworth, farther north on the river, was more promising than Kansas City, but the building of bridges across the Missouri at the latter point gave it a start which enterprising people have helped along, and so kept it in the lead. Kansas City is a great stock market and meat-packing center, having the second largest meat-packing establishment in the United States. It is a collecting and distributing center for a large share of the Pacific Coast trade, as well as the Mississippi Valley, and is also a transfer station for the cotton destined for China, it being sent from here via Billings, Mont., to Seattle, then across the Pacific. Here also are one of the largest smelting works in the United States, flouring mills, iron foundries, boot and shoe and stove manufactories, etc.

From Kansas City the river flows in an easterly direction across Missouri, and about the center of the state passes Jefferson City, the capital, which has an elevated site. The country in this state, especially north of the river, is a region of great agricultural wealth.

The country thru which the Missouri flows was sold by a sovereign of the Old World to a democrat of the New World a hundred years ago, and wonderful have been the changes in that time. President Jefferson's enemies ridiculed him for buying the vast territory, which now comprises nearly the whole of twelve states. The Louisiana Purchase Exposition, which is to be held in St. Louis this summer, will give people a better idea of what has taken place in this territory in the time it has belonged to the United States, and especially in the last fifty years.

This country has grown within a century from a wilderness to a section of plenty. Here the buffalo and Indian used to roam at will, the latter provided the neighboring tribes were willing. In those days the rivers were the principal highways and often the Indian villages were built on the banks of the streams at some commanding point. To this country the white man had not come till about a hundred years ago, and for a long time after that very few attempted to penetrate this wilderness, tho a few settlements were made toward the south in the early part of the century.

The Missouri is subject to floods and nearly every spring we read about how the water has risen and overflowed its banks, often covering the country for miles and causing much damage to property and fields. In these floods the bed is often changed.

Nature Study.

Field Excursions in Geography and Nature Study Work

The teacher should take advantage of every opportunity of studying nature out of doors, and should strive to become familiar with actual examples of as many kinds of physiographic phenomena as possible. It will be found practically useful to look over the text-book section by section to see how far personal acquaintance with the facts there described has been made and to discover how far this acquaintance may be extended. The earth's rotation, the change in the direction of sunrise and sunset with the seasons, the form of clouds, the range of the tides, the weathering of rock ledges, the washing of rock waste, the behavior of streams, the forms of shore waves, all these and many other facts should become personally familiar as far as the teacher's field of observation includes them. This is particularly important in connection with the observational study of land forms. No set instructions can be given for this study, because the field of observation varies so greatly from place to place. Summer vacation excursions should be carefully utilized; brief notes, outline maps and diagrams should be made whenever possible, but always with the attempt to refer the things seen to the class in which they belong. The topographical sheets published by the United States Geological Survey are of great service when the teacher is traveling over districts which they cover; their extremely small cost makes them available to every one.

Altho there are many practical difficulties in the way of school excursions, the difficulties are as a rule not insurmountable; and it is certainly a fact that school excursions are becoming more common year by year. When they are carefully planned and well conducted there can be no question of their value. Good order should be maintained. On the way to and from the points of special study the class should be restrained only by the rules of good behavior, but while at work studying the points selected by the teacher close attention should be required of each pupil.

Excursions in the spring should be directed to determining the stage of development reached by the best accessible examples of land and stream forms, and careful practice should be given in the description of these forms in terms of their stage of development. Process of change and past history of development can not be neglected in such study, but they should be subordinated to the observation and description of existing forms. Indeed, past process and history have a place in physiography only in so far as they aid the student to see and understand the present. Furthermore, all the examples of land or stream forms encountered in the spring excursions should be treated as belonging to known classes of forms, explained in the

text-book, and holding systematic positions in those classes. The study is greatly broadened by thus establishing a systematic relation between local facts and the general discussions of the text.

Let it be supposed that a stream is visited. If local rapids are found in its course they should be described as "not yet worn down to grade with the even stretch next below them;" while the ledges or boulders by which the rapids are determined should be recognized as "the local baselevel with respect to which the next stretch upstream is already graded." If narrow strips of flood plain are found they should be treated as "the beginnings of what will in time be a broad valley floor;" if a leisurely stream with free-swinging meanders is discovered it should be regarded as "the later development of what was once a hurried stream, descending on a nearly direct course." The intention of these phrases is to enforce attention upon existing features by comparing them with other features of systematic occurrence.

Care should be taken that separate items of observation are not left to stand alone in the pupil's mind, but that they should be associated with other items, observed or fairly inferred, so that they shall take their proper relative positions in a systematic treatment. Otherwise the result of field work is apt to be only a series of disconnected and therefore apparently trivial details. After local study of a hill or spur in a dissected plain or plateau it should be explained to be only a small part of the whole to which it belongs. When a stream has been followed it should be placed properly in the river system to which it belongs. Maps are serviceable in this part of the work. It is particularly in this connection that the experience and ingenuity of the teacher are drawn upon to aid the pupil. It is well to remember that a young pupil's power of expression is below his power of understanding; and hence that if written reports of observations are called for they will frequently give imperfect indication of what the pupil has learned and be of relatively small value to refer to afterwards if the teacher has not given due assistance in the matter of phrasing, especially when items of observation are extended into generalizations.

Pupils should be aided in making sketch maps of at least a part of the district covered by the excursions, and for this purpose it is desirable that the teacher should be already well practiced in making such records. It is well to begin on a hilltop or rise of ground, whence some roads, houses, fields, streams, etc., may be seen. Hold the notebook so that the top of the page is turned to the north; adopt a linear scale appropriate to the area to be mapped; draw lines on the page parallel (as well as can be estimated) to the roads, fences, etc., that are easily seen; locate the houses and other landmarks as well as may be. The outline thus made will serve as a basis to which other data are added as the excursion proceeds. Corrections of the first drawing must be frequently made, especially if opportunity is given for taking the compass bearing or for pacing the length of a road that is followed after it has been sketched. The map may prove to be a very rough affair, and may show very imperfectly the features of the district visited, but it will serve a valuable purpose in impressing on the pupils how great an amount of labor and how high a degree of skill has been required in the preparation of such maps as those published by our governmental bureaus. It must be remembered that in preparing such maps observations can be made at any one point only as far as eyesight (or sometimes telescopic sight) will carry; hence all parts of the country must be successively

visited, and a great number of local maps must be put together and drawn on reduced scale in order to make a map of a state. The surveyor is aided by appropriate instruments, but no instruments can obviate the necessity of actually going over the ground in order to discover the location of its various elements of form. The maps in atlases and school geographies, for example, from which one learns the location of mountains, rivers and cities, have all been made essentially by a repetition of the simple work that may be illustrated in an afternoon's excursion. It is very desirable that pupils should gain in some such way as this a realizing sense of the manner in which maps are constructed and of the labor that they cost.

It is important that excursions should be carefully planned, but it is usually impossible as well as inadvisable to limit the observations on such excursions precisely to predetermined topics. Let the main objects of the excursion be clearly defined in the teacher's mind; let the observations that are required of the pupils illustrate these objects as closely as possible; but encourage additional observations, explain them as far as time permits, and urge the pupils to make brief records of what they see and hear. Reference to these records—or to the memory of the excursions—may be made when the facts are successively encountered in the study of the text-book.—The Teacher's Guide, Ginn & Co.

Primary School Botany Work— Twigs

ELIZABETH T. COOLIDGE.

In early spring botany work a great deal can be done with twigs. Have the children bring them; also gather yourself, in order to secure variety. Some of the best twigs to study are walnut, horse-chestnut, hickory, maple, willow and elm. These offer a variety, both in color and texture of bark and position and size of buds.

Notice first the difference in bark—how readily it can be peeled from woody stem in some cases and how firmly attached in others. An interesting point can be made of difference in color, both as regards the different twigs and the same twig at different ages. Lead the children to observe how the fresh greens and reds of some of the young twigs are toned down as the season advances.

Tell the interesting story of the winter life of the buds—how they were wrapped up tight in the hard outer scales, which, containing little or no water, are poor conductors of heat, and so prevent injury to the buds thru sudden changes of temperature. The little folks will be delighted, and well they may, with the beautiful hickory buds with their rose-colored velvety leaves.

Bring out the fact that the tiny hairs forming this downy covering secrete an oily matter which renders the "bud leaves" impervious to water, and so prevents freezing. The same purpose is served in other cases by a varnish with which the bud scales are covered. Notice, also, which twigs have "naked" buds, that is, those which are not protected by scales during the winter. They are always small, and often concealed under the bark.

We come now to the arrangement of the buds on the stem. The children can easily see that under each bud is a mark—a leaf scar. Explain how this scar

was left by the leaf which fell last autumn, and that the buds are always found just above these scars, in the axils of the leaves. Then lead them to notice how the position of the leaf scars, and consequently of the buds, differs—that they are opposite on some of the twigs, and alternate on others. Do not use these terms until they are fully comprehended. Illustrate them in a variety of ways. For instance, let the children make two rows of circles on the blackboard, first opposite and then alternate; stand a row of children in the front of the room; then, selecting a like number, have them stand opposite the first row; then have them move until they are alternating. When understood use these terms freely, and have the children do so until they are perfectly familiar with them. Do not be afraid of technical terms because they are long. A long word, if associated with an idea, is far more interesting to the child, and consequently much easier to remember than a short word which means nothing to him. Do not neglect the terminal bud; remember that this is the point of growth of the twig. I see no reason why they should not learn its proper name, provided it is made perfectly clear. Tell them that "terminus" means "end."

Endeavor to have some twigs of several years' growth, and attract attention to the series of rings found at intervals on the stem. Show how the scales falling away from the terminal bud have left these scars, and how we can measure each year's growth by this means.

Touch upon the fact that the bud is a rudimentary stem around which are wrapped rudimentary leaves, and that it is going to develop into a leafy branch, which, in its turn, will develop buds at the axils of its leaves, and so lead up to the fact that the shape and manner of spreading of the tree is dependent on the arrangement of the first leaves which the tree sent forth, whether they were opposite or alternate; for, as they were, so all the future branches and leaves will be.

Call attention to the "extra" buds, sometimes placed side by side, but oftener one above the other, which come into use if, for any reason, the growth of the first bud is checked. This is a pretty instance of nature's provision against accidents.

A great deal of interest might be aroused, if teachers saw fit, in what might be called "abnormal" buds. Many of the children have seen tufts of branches on trunks of elms and willows. Explain how these are caused. Some irritation of the surface, as grazing, has caused an excess of nourishment to be sent to the injured spot, and buds are the result. These abnormal or "adventitious" buds are also sometimes formed on leaves and roots. Many willows send up shoots at some distance from the trunk. These spring from buds which have formed on the roots. An interesting experiment is to cut a begonia leaf so as to leave only the portion around the footstalk; place it in damp sand and keep in a warm temperature for a few days. Buds will appear in the axils of the veins.

In all this work keep in mind the value of allowing the child to see and discover things for himself. Wherever possible lead your class to tell you the fact you wish to bring before them. By judicious questioning and illustration this can often be done where at first it would seem impossible. A very profitable exercise is to see that each child has a twig on his desk, and then have oral or written descriptions of them given. Insist upon accuracy. If written, have each child draw a picture of his twig, placing the buds correctly.—American Primary Teacher.

Nature Study Experiments

In the development of nature study in our schools one most important feature has been seriously neglected—the experiment. It is difficult to justly appreciate the great value of experimental work in the grades, simplified for the beginners, more complicated and elaborate with older pupils. In experimentation there is always present that which is so often fatally lacking in observational work—a definite and satisfactory motive. Something is being tried, not merely looked at. Instruction thru experiment is dynamic; instruction thru the old-time object-lesson was a very static affair, scarce worthy to be called a process. When a boy is given charge of an experiment he at once realizes a new sense of responsibility, of direction and control; if you please, of manliness. There is something doing, and he is the officer in charge. He has set up conditions, is handling the reins, and with eagerness awaits the results.

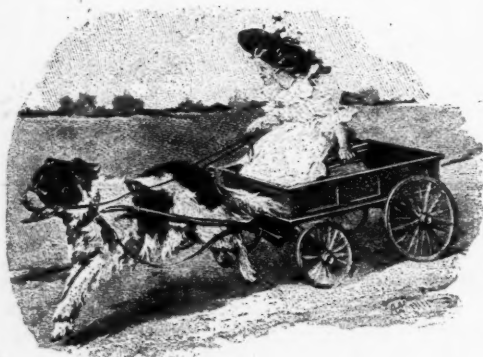
Much experimenting can be done with the simplest possible apparatus, even in the primary grades. Leaves whose stems have been placed in red ink reveal the sap-lifting force of foliage; a tumbler or jar over a plant serves to demonstrate that moisture is given off into the air; seedlings, desiring the light, peep thru the window of the inverted box under which they have grown, etc. I have known idling boys whose interests have been touched only thru such work, while hand in hand with the research spirit came a most gratifying awakening to habits of neatness and attention. It is perhaps unnecessary to state that I refer here to genuine individual experiment where pupils are occupied with apparatus, and not to mere demonstration by the teacher.—Fred L. Charles.

A Chart for Studying the Animals and Birds of a Country

Arrange a large sheet of pasteboard so that it can be hung against the wall. Draw the circles bounding the zones of the country which is being studied. The outline of the country may be drawn if desired, but is not necessary. The entire sheet of pasteboard, say four or five feet long, may represent a continent, since latitude is the principal thing it needs to show. If, for example, you are studying North America, ask the children to bring pictures of as many kinds of the birds and animals of North America as they can find. Let a child show a picture he has found, describe the animal or bird and tell all he can about its habits value, etc. After a careful study has been made the picture is pasted on the chart in the part of the country where it naturally belongs. Separate charts for the animals and birds may be used if desired. Pictures must all be small or the chart will soon be covered.

As the collection grows day by day before the eyes of the children their interest and fund of information increases. The fact that the chart is the product of the children's own creation increases its value many times. Any device to get the children's attention out of their books and on doing things will awaken their interest and make them think practical thoughts.—T. A. Edwards.

Pictures for Use in Language and Reading in Primary Grades



Cut out the pictures and paste them on cardboard or white pasteboard. Give the six pictures to as many different pupils. Permit them to study the pictures for a few minutes, then call on one at a time to stand at his desk with picture in hand and tell a story about it. Do not allow the pupil to drop into the habit of simply telling or naming the objects seen in the picture. Encourage the pupil's imagination to make up a story in which the picture illustrates a scene.

Teachers will be astonished at the inventiveness of the little folks in making stories suggested by the action in the picture. Have one of the pictures passed from pupil to pupil, requiring each to say something about it, at the same time printing or writing the sentences on the blackboard. Then require pupils to read the story as thus written. The alert teacher will find numberless ways for using these mounted pictures in language, reading and composition.

Talks With Teachers

A Teacher's Ways

MARY E. FITZ GERALD.

"Well," said Jimmie Wallace, coming home with an air of one who has achieved victories, "I guess the fellows won't say any more that I'm a sissy and teacher's pet. She pitched into me today to beat the band because my geography paper was blotted. I was going to tell her Mary Johnston's hair dipped into the ink and did it, but I just happened to remember how she hates excuses and I didn't say anything; and I got it good and proper," he said emphatically; "and tonight Harry Jensby asked me to join the baseball team he's getting up."

"Did he ask you because he felt sorry for you?" said his innocent mother.

"You bet he didn't! He told me he thought maybe I was too good to play ball because I always had my examples right and teacher never spoke to me. He said if he got the roasting I did he'd sass her back, but I notice he never does just the same, and he gets roasted once or twice a day, and has to bring his father besides. I'd like to see any one answer Miss Richards back," and he grinned.

"I hope," said his mother anxiously, "that you won't give Miss Richards any trouble just to please a few boys who seem to be perfectly lawless, and I think I wouldn't join that team, if I were you, if the boys are all like Harry Jensby."

"Oh, mother! why some of the best boys in the room are in it," said Jimmie in consternation. "Because I'm a new boy they didn't know what I could do; and because I know a lot more than they do about history they think I'm one of the kind of fellows who read all the time and don't know anything about playing games. When they see what a fine player I am they'll be sorry they called me names and treated me so at first."

"Conceit is to the human character what salt is to the ocean; it helps to keep it sweet," quoted Mr. Wallace, who had apparently been intently reading his paper.

"It isn't being conceited to know what you can do, is it mother?" said Jimmie stoutly.

"I'm sure I don't know," said Mrs. Wallace. "I know conceited people are detestable; if conceit makes their characters sweet it certainly has a contrary effect on the characters of those who are unfortunate enough to be brought in contact with them. I don't think you're conceited, Jimmie, to say that you are a good player. You know you are. In Olney you were the best player there. But I do hope, Jimmie, you will always be respectful to your teacher. I'm worried about that scolding."

"If you were Harry Jensby's mother what would you do?" inquired Jimmie. "But you needn't worry these channels is not going to be so very much fooled

about my being respectful. If you knew Miss Richards you wouldn't worry, you bet."

Not long afterwards Mrs. Wallace and Miss Richards met in the car.

"Did Jimmie tell you what a scolding I gave him?" asked Miss Richards smiling.

Rather surprised at her lack of tact, Mrs. Wallace said, "Yes, and I was so sorry to hear it was necessary."

"You needn't be at all," said the teacher. "I overheard a few remarks about 'teacher's pet' and 'afraid to do anything' and 'supe' and various other expressions which long experience has taught me are applied to every well-behaved boy who has not shown his mettle in a fight. I saw that he was extremely unhappy, so I looked for an opportunity to find fault. I saw Mary Johnston's hair sweep over his paper and his look of consternation gave me my cue."

"But," said Mrs. Wallace, a little bewildered, "was not that rather heroic treatment for a sensitive boy? Might it not result in antagonizing him against you?"

"I fear no antagonism," said Miss Richards confidently. "I never saw one I could not disarm. In Jimmie's case it was simply a question of which was most desirable, to be out with the teacher or out with the boys, for awhile, and I decided in favor of the boys. The opinion of his classmates means much more to a child than the opinion of his teacher. Then," she went on, "I knew my boy before I tried my cure. Hasn't he been much happier?"

"He certainly has," said Mrs. Wallace heartily. "His father is delighted with his progress. Harry Jensby comes over every night to do his work with Jimmie. I saw Mr. Wallace brushing up on bank discount so he might help them," and she laughed.

"Well, the ways of teachers are past finding out," said Mrs. Wallace to her husband that evening. "Think of reprimanding a boy to establish him in the good graces of his companions! I should think if they disliked the boy it would please them to see him in disgrace."

"It's all according to your hand," as we say in whist," said Mr. Wallace. "I suppose she sizes them up in a hundred ways that no one but a teacher would ever think of, and acts accordingly. But whatever her method, if it stopped them from calling him a 'sissy' she deserves our heartfelt gratitude. To be a 'sissy boy' is a depth of degradation no feminine mind can comprehend."

Judging Character by Pencils

"Judge a man's character by lead pencils?" repeated a drummer in an uptown hotel; "that's a new standard; go on."

"By lead pencils," continued an elderly man, with a benevolent countenance, and evidently a plethoric bank account.

"I am the head of one of the largest retail houses in Chicago," he resumed. "I was formerly manager of the concern and I hired all of its employees. I soon became used to sizing up men, young and old, for what I say does not apply to women, because they don't carry pencils."

"Human nature, I soon found, runs in regular channels, and the man who catches on to the course of

by his fellow men, even tho the latter may conceal their characteristics artfully or innocently.

"One day while an applicant for a place stood before me I asked him to lend me his pencil. He produced one so neatly sharpened at both ends that I gave him a second glance and saw that his appearance, tho his clothing was not new, accorded with the exactness shown in the neat, sharp pencil point. I engaged him, and today he is the assistant manager of our store.

"That gave me a new idea. I would ask applicants to lend me a pencil. Men who carried scrappy bits of pencils, dull and unsharpened or bitten off at the ends, as a rule I found to show other external evidences of possessing characteristics which negated their engagement. I found that men who kept about them well-sharpened pencils were, as a rule, good mathematicians, were handy with their pen, wrote a good hand, were neat in their habits and were otherwise superior to the other fellows."—Washington Evening Star.

A School Ceremony

A pretty morning ceremony is the procession of candidates to the office of the principal for daily commendation—one or two children from each room, bearing their trophies of penmanship or ciphering with them. Each has his card of introduction, properly endorsed, accrediting to the court of the Great Potentate. It reads:

September 30, 1902.

To the Principal:—

This will introduce to you Johnny Johnson, from Room 32, whom I recommend for compliment for great improvement in behaving himself.

Mary Potter,
Teacher.

This string of proud and happy youngsters is a triumphal procession worth looking at. No conquered enemies, no disappointed rivals line their path. Their laurels are bloodless, even tearless, for these are not little prigs selected as the best of all the class, but such as have done well enough to be officially told so, it may be for effort, it may be for success, it may be for improvement.

The effect upon the teacher who must commend these delegates every morning with discrimination and cordiality is not to be sniffed at. Even to be compelled once in twenty-four hours to bestow approval upon effort, to glance at the card, and with memory thus fortified, to call the happy Thomas by his name, to see his face blossom into smiling—this must involve a reflex action on the principal that makes him more fit for the duties of the day.

For there are weeds in the flower-bed which the head gardener may not ignore. All the seeds of crime are in this soil. Deceit, cheating, lying, stealing, vulgarity, impurity, and all the long, sad list of sins that mar our mortal state are here in a nascent form. The schoolmaster must serve as judge and jury over faults that the outside world thinks trivial, yet that are crimes against the society in which they are committed. He has not only the reputation of his institution to protect, but the positive moral education of his charges to secure.

Discipline for moral delinquencies is the one hard thing in teaching that seems necessarily disagreeable and forever possible. The silver lining of this cloud is the faith of ultimate benefit from such discipline and the relative fewness of the occasions that call for it. For, like men, most children are clean and honest most of the time.—William McAndrew in World's Work.

Arbor Day Invitation

Here is a very pretty Arbor Day invitation, one designed by a teacher in Shullsburg, Wis., and used by her pupils last year. The bird holding the leaf containing the invitation may be cut



from white or colored cardboard. If it is cut from white some lines and coloring may be used to better bring out the bird picture. The whole forms an interesting piece of hand-work for the pupils.

(Continued from page 4.)

That denominational school buildings, if they are required and suitable for use as provided schools, may be rented or purchased on equitable terms for the purpose of elementary education, due regard being had to the existing rights of the public in such buildings. 3. That all schools maintained by public funds, whether by rates or taxes, shall be under the sole management and control of representatives appointed by the method of popular election. 4. That there shall be adequate provision for the training of all teachers of public elementary schools, free from theological and ecclesiastical tests, and under the sole management and control of the popularly elected education authorities. 5. That no ecclesiastical or theological tests shall be applied in the appointments of teachers of publicly supported schools or training colleges. 6. That no distinctively denominational teaching or formulary shall be given or used in public schools in school hours, but simple Biblical instruction may be given according to a syllabus, as is general at present in provided schools. Attendance at such instruction shall be subject to a conscience clause. 7. That the foregoing provisions shall also have reference to secondary education as far as they may be applicable. 8. That women shall be eligible for election to any local education authority throughout England and Wales, and including London."

The position of the defenders of religious schools may be given in the words of the Protestant Bishop of London. He declares that the principle to be defended is a three-fold one; (1) that the teaching of definite religious truth is an integral part of true education; (2) that the religious truth taught the children should be the religion of their parents; and (3) that it should be taught them by those who believe it. Catholics, while giving to the second clause qualified adhesion, give to the first and third whole-hearted and active support.

The attitude of English Nonconformists to the schools forms one of the most remarkable examples of contradiction between principles and practice. The common characteristic and essential feature of the various dissenting sects, the point upon which one and all agree, is the contention that the church should be free from state control; whatever they differ about, on this they are united. Yet it is to the placing of religion under the control of the state—of the voters, that is, for they are now the source of power in the state—that all the efforts which they are so strenuously putting forth are tending. There is to be one national school system, not without religion but with a religion from which everything that is disputed by any body of voters, however small—a religion that is manufactured to suit the voters. This religion the state supports, over it it is supreme; from every other it withholds all help. Others it tolerates, but does not refrain from exacting money for the support of its own. This is clearly a state religion, and to support it is in fact a contradiction to the principles which made the first Nonconformist.

The fact that purely secular and undenominational schools have had the financial support of the state, with all the advantages which that gives, while voluntary and religious schools have had up to the present to maintain themselves with inadequate resources, has led many to take it for granted that the education imparted in the schools wholly supported by public money must be unexceptional. This, however, is not the judgment of those who are well qualified to judge. Sir John Gorst, member of Parliament for the University of Cambridge and for many years Vice-President of the Board of Education, in his presidential address to the Association of Technical Institutions, has recently said that there were millions of children who from babyhood to the age of fourteen were drilled in reading, writing, and arithmetic upon a system the result of which was that when they attained that age, and were finally dismissed from school, they could neither read, nor write, nor cipher. There were millions of children and young persons now upon whom all the enormous sums annually spent out of the rates and taxes upon elementary education had been absolutely thrown away. The whole object of education had been mistaken; the natural propensities of the children

were crushed, and they were made into a quiet, orderly, stupid class without individuality, without any desire for knowledge, without any power to do anything practical or to be of any use.

Nor is Sir John Gorst the only censurer of the state system of education. Dr. Armstrong, professor of Chemistry at the City of Guilds of London Central Institute, declares the results obtained by the much-belauded London School Board a grave peril to the city. He declares the elementary education as given in their schools to have been of no use; that all who have seriously considered the system condemn it as unpractical; that a race of desk-ridden emasculates is being formed. The belief in the dignity of manual labor among those who are destined to perform it is fast disappearing. The absolute failure to understand what is desirable in elementary education he declares to be proved by the Report for 1903 in the examination held for scholarships at the disposal of the School Board of London. A more ghastly farce could not well be imagined. The report on the School Training and Early Employment of Lancashire Children, issued by the Board of Education, is full of deplorable revelations. To quote a few words from this: "It seems plain that whatever else the schools may do they cannot yet be said to quicken the intelligence of the children generally. . . . Though the boys and girls have learnt reading, writing, and arithmetic, and a crowd of other subjects, yet they do not read, still less do they write, and they are perplexed by any calculation which is not expressed in the forms to which they have grown familiar."

It would seem, therefore, that the schools, although organized by the best intelligence and supported by all the resources of the nation, have failed in securing efficiency even for the merely materialistic aims which as now constituted form their *raison d'être*, inasmuch as definite religious education has been excluded. When we bear in mind, too, the fact that the physique of large masses of the people has so deteriorated as to constitute a national danger and to demand the appointment of a royal commission to investigate into its causes, it cannot be said that progress is so evident under what are supposed to be up-to-date methods as to justify the contempt of our forefathers which is so prevalent. In Russia eighty per cent. of the people are absolutely illiterate, yet its peasantry are strong and vigorous, and the nation itself, as many think, only too powerful.

In Ireland, too, the subject of education has been widely discussed. There, however, it is to the University question that attention has been called. Primary education, through the strong religious sense of the Irish people, may be looked upon as fairly well settled. After many long years, however, the higher education still remains unsettled. Captain Taylor, whose efforts for harmony between landlord and tenant were so successful, attempted to render a like service for bringing to an end this long contention. He tried to bring together Catholics and Churchmen and Presbyterians to a conference similar to the land conference. Promises of attendance were made, but for one reason or another not kept, and everything promised failure. Then Lord Dunraven made proposals, which were accepted by the Catholic bishops. Then Trinity College became alarmed, and offered special privileges to Catholic students. This offer was rejected by Cardinal Logue with but little ceremony. High hopes were entertained of the government being favorable. In fact, the proposals of Lord Dunraven were generally supposed to be the very same as the Chief Secretary for Ireland had suggested. But the hopes so far have come to nothing. A few days before Parliament opened Lord Londonderry declared that the government had no intention of establishing a university for Catholics, and the speech from the throne made no mention of the subject. The unyielding hostility of the Irish Conservatives is still too strong, although Mr. Balfour several years ago declared the claim of Catholics to be just. The fiscal controversy, too, precludes any attempt this season to enter upon so thorny a matter.—*The Catholic World* for April.

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Innsbruck and Its Great University.

DR. THOMAS O'HAGAN.

I write you from the heart of the Tyrol glorified by the heroic deeds of an Andreas Hofer and consecrated by the faith and piety of a devoutly Catholic people.

I regard the Tyrol as one of the most charming spots in all Europe. Its mountain scenery is not on so grand scale as for instance the Canadian Rockies, but it has greater variety.

The city of Innsbruck, quaint and historic, is set between snow-capped mountains each of which seems to have an



DR. THOMAS O'HAGAN.

individuality of its own. To live in Innsbruck for a month is to be privileged to witness transformations in nature daily—I was going to say hourly, which are rarely seen in any other part of the world. Now the mountain sides are wrapped in a deep mystery of color. Sharing in the inky cloak of Hamlet and the soft blue of an autumn twilight. Now the gold of a noonday sun crowns the snow-capped summits with a sparkling splendor as if the finger of God had quickened them with the artistry of heaven.

All through the Tyrol valley there are charming little towns nestling and dreaming and kneeling in prayer before an altar not built by the hand of man. There are but two cities in America which in situation and environment resemble somewhat Innsbruck—Salt Lake city in Utah, and Monterey, in Mexico.

We hear a good deal in America of the *los von Rome* movement in Austria, but it really amounts to very little. The people here are Catholic and Catholic they will remain. I regard the Tyroleans as eminently devout Catholics. No doubt there are "loose fish" among them, but the evidence of piety which I have seen here during a residence of a month is such that I have "writ down in my tablets" the kindly genial and simple-hearted people of the Tyrol as among the most Catholic of the Catholics of Europe.

The University of Innsbruck which is one of seven Austrian universities, is doing good work. By the courtesy of the professors, I have been permitted to attend lectures in History and Literature. The Jesuits have charge of the theological department, but the philosophy is taught by laymen and is simply the philosophy of the day—which means a history of philosophy.

I heard Rev. Dr. Michael, the eminent Jesuit historian lecture on the Nestorian Heresy. Like all Jesuit scholars, he is most thorough and convincing. Dr. Michael has recently published a history of Germany during the Middle Ages, and is said to have done for Germany during those centuries what Jansen did for the period preceding the revolt of Luther.

Father Denifle, the learned Dominican scholar and archivist, has recently published a work on Luther which has stirred Europe to its centre. Through the permission of the Emperor of Germany, Father Denifle was given access to everything documentary and literary dealing with the life of Luther. Father Denifle also preceded Prof. Rashdall of Oxford in his history of the Mediæval universities of Europe.

Speaking generally, European university education and American university education differ very much in their spirit and scope. European education is much more thorough—more profound, more exhaustive. American education is much more practical. The European scholar theorizes, the American scholar generalizes. The European scholar goes deeper, the American scholar wider in his work.

There are, however, not a few American professors who are quite as thorough as the European professors.

Germany has done the best historical research work of any country in Europe. France has done the best work in diplomatics and in the generalizing of history. German scholars give you the facts, the whole facts, and nothing but the facts. The French scholars give you the movement of history—its color, its life, its very heart throb.

Some one has said that in order to reach great results a man should possess the industry of the Germans, the elegance of the French and the idealism of the Italians. The greatest calamity that could befall this old and venerable planet of ours, would be the extinction of the Latin race—it would mean a return to materialism and barbarism. The Teuton is a strong man, but he needs the ideality and elegance of the Latin to round him out.

No other system of education in the world today is as thorough as is the German, nor is there any other so theoretical. But the best work, educational in Germany, is done in the *Gymnasiums*. I do not like the university life

in Germany at all. I do not believe you can build up a high intelligent or refined manhood on Munich lager beer, nor does the "Schlag" with its spilling of blood at the point of the sword make young men either brave or chivalrous. I think it is a remnant of barbarism and I believe that many a young German student wears a scar on his cheek who is both a physical and moral coward. The tenderest are indeed the bravest and in my opinion what this old world of ours needs most sorely today is more tenderness and gentleness of heart and less brutal force—more of the poverty and self-denial of a St. Francis of Assisi and less of the glare and glitter of the millionaire. Men say that the time for the Mediæval monk has passed away, but in my opinion no age in the history of the world needed him so badly as does our own day.

***The attention of teachers and school officials is especially called to the announcement on our first page of "New Books for Art Instruction," by the Prang Educational Co., Chicago.

The fact that the Prang company leads all others in the matter of books and supplies for drawing in the schools, and that it has at its command the best artistic talent in the country, lends much importance and interest to the present announcement of a new and notable series for art instruction in all grades. Do not fail to read the announcement and if it is possible for you to visit Chicago this summer, write for circular regarding the Summer School of Art, which opens July 18 under the management of this company.

***Teachers who have not yet seen the "Perfect Writing Book," published by the National Publishing Co., 308 Seventh street, Louisville, Ky., should write at once for free samples. The strong point of this book is that it keeps the perfect copy always before the pupil, thus preventing him from using his own writing for a model as he proceeds down the page.

***Now is the time to arrange for diplomas, first communion and confirmation certificates, grade souvenirs. Elsewhere in this number will be found the advertisements of two reliable concerns that make a speciality of this line of supplies. The B. C. Kassel Co., Chicago Opera House Block, Chicago, and The Kinsley Studio, 245 Broadway, New York.

—The May number of The Journal will contain material helpful and suggestive for arranging commencement programs. It will be mailed to subscribers earlier in the month than usual.

—Our Annual Summer Institute Number will be issued in June.

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ARCHBISHOP ELDER'S BIRTH-DAY.



Archbishop Elder was 85 years of age on March 22. He is today the oldest prelate in the United States and the second oldest in the world. In three

years he will be able to celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of his consecration as a bishop.

Msgr. Elder was consecrated Bishop of Natchez on May 3, 1857. On Jan. 30, 1880 he was appointed coadjutor to the archbishop of Cincinnati, and succeeded to the See July 4, 1883. He was invested with the pallium on Dec. 13, 1883.

The prelate whose consecration antedates that of Archbishop Elder and who is the oldest living prelate in the world, is the Mt. Rev. Dr. Daniel Murphy, archbishop of Hobart in Tasmania. Msgr. Murphy was born in Cork on June 18, 1815, the very day that saw the overthrow of Napoleon at Waterloo. He made his studies at Maynooth, and was ordained priest on June 9, 1838.

Going as a missionary to Hindoostan, he became coadjutor to the vicar-apostolic of Madras in 1846, the year in which Leo XIII. was made Archbishop of Perugia. Subsequently he was appointed Bishop of Hyderabad,

India, and was transferred to Tasmania in 1866. He has been a priest for 65 years and a bishop for 57 and is still strong and active.

* * *

FATHER BADIN'S REMAINS.

Father Scherrer, C.S.C., president of St. Joseph's college, a branch school of the University of Notre Dame, has arrived at Notre Dame from Cincinnati bearing the ashes of Father Stephen Theodore Badin, one of the pioneer priests of the United States and one whose early labors laid the foundation for the rearing of the University of Notre Dame.

The arrival of Father Scherrer marked the successful termination of the efforts which the authorities of Notre Dame have made to have the remains removed, and it was only recently that the desired consent was forthcoming. He had been buried since April, 1853, in St. Peter's cathedral at Cincinnati with his old friend and intimate co-

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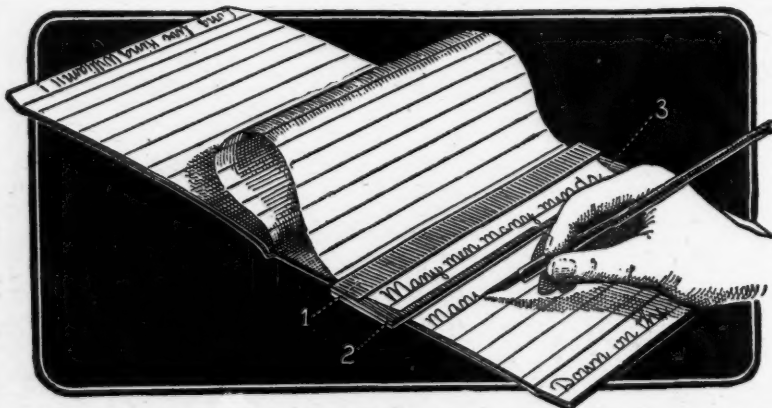


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laborer, Bishop Fenwick. The remains of the old missionary will be placed beneath the Church of the Sacred Heart, in the temporary vault, to await the formal interment next October, when it is expected that the impressive ceremonies will be attended by all the leading ecclesiastics of the country.

The bearing of Father Badin's remains to Notre Dame awakens an interest in this early missionary, who holds the position of one of the first of the early pioneers of Catholic missionary work. He was of American birth, having been born at New Orleans in 1768. His education was received in France, where he finished the classical course at the College Montague in Paris. Here he was graduated with honors and took up the study of theology, being ordained a priest in 1793. It is interesting to know that he was the first priest ordained within the present limits of the United States. The ceremony was performed in St. Peter's cathedral at Baltimore by Bishop Carroll.

Examine the desks of your school some evening, or on a Saturday, and find out how many inkwells are broken or missing. Then write to the Squires Inkwell Co., Pittsburg, Pa., for enough to fill your immediate needs, and a small reserve besides. This company is able to quote you the lowest prices.

EX-QUEEN ISABELLA DEAD.


Ex-Queen Isabella of Spain, grandmother of King Alfonso, died in Paris Apr. 9, of influenza with complications. Shortly before the queen died the papal muncio was summoned to administer



EX-QUEEN ISABELLA.

the last sacrament, but owing to his absence from Paris the last rites of the church were administered by the vicar of the Church of St. Pierre.

Maria Isabel Luisa, Isabella II, ex-queen of Spain, was born in Madrid, October 10, 1830. She was the eldest daughter of Ferdinand VII, and his fourth wife, Maria Christina. The question of her succession to the throne caused in Spain a bloody civil war. Her father having no son, repealed the Salic law, introduced into Spain by Philip V, and named the expected offspring of his fourth marriage to succeed him, thus excluding his brother, Don Carlos, who was then their presumptive by virtue of that law. Ferdinand died in 1833, and Isabella, then but three years old, was proclaimed queen. Don Carlos took up arms, and was supported by the Carlists. The contest gradually assumed the worst form of civil war, the clergy taking sides with Don Carlos, while the queen's party was identified with that of the liberals, or exaltados. The young queen was supported by the majority of the people, and in 1834 it was almost unanimously agreed by the legislative cortes that Don Carlos and his descendants should be forever excluded from the Spanish throne. Peace was concluded in August, 1839. Don Carlos fled to France. But more trouble came. Insurrections followed. The queen mother fled to France. Espartero became regent, but was compelled to abdicate. The cortes then stepped in and advanced the young queen's



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majority 11 months and placed her on the throne, November 10, 1843.

On October 10, 1846, under the influence of Louis Philippe, Isabella was married to her cousin, Don Francisco de Assisi, and at the same time her sister Maria was married to the Duke of Montpensier. This alliance gave rise to sinister comments, and resulted in domestic unhappiness and in injurious reports in regard to the conjugal fitness of the king and the conjugal fidelity of the queen.

Her reign was a troublesome one. Insurrections again began to break out. In 1868 a larger one than usual started at Cadiz and became so strong that the queen had to flee to France. Napoleon III, put at her disposal his palace at Pau. In 1868 her deposition was declared at Madrid. She took up her residence at Paris and has remained there ever since. On June 25, 1870, she abdicated her claim to the throne of Spain, in favor of her son Alfonso, prince of Asturias, who assumed the title of Alfonso XII.

Isabella was the grandmother of the present king of Spain, Alfonso XIII.

THE campaign of William R. Hearst for the presidential nomination, is developing some new features in politics. One of these—just to hand—is an attempt on the part of the Hearst managers to engage all the space in the St. Louis hotels during convention week and thus practically bar the delegates and friends of the other candidates. The St. Louis hotel managers, however, refused to enter into the deal. There are few parallels in the history of national pre-convention campaigns to the work of Mr. Hearst. He has engaged quarters in St. Louis to house an army of men and his delegates and shouters will be entertained, roomed and fed at his expense.

Despite his efforts, however, indications are beginning to point more and more to the nomination of Judge Parker. It is said that a majority of the members of the Democratic national committee are for Parker. He has already a majority of the New York delegates pledged and Indiana, it is stated, will send a solid delegation for him. He will undoubtedly get the support of what is called the conservative element

in the party and a large following of those who have affiliations with both wings and think that the nomination of Parker will bring strength from both the Bryan and anti-Bryan men.

A WASHINGTON dispatch says that "pension officials stand aghast at the number of inquiries flooding the bureau from veterans who intend to make application for service pensions under the recent order." Inquiries and applications are received at the rate of 1,000 a day and are coming from every section of the country. It will increase pension payments over \$20,000,000 yearly.

The order which has caused so much excitement and such a wide range of speculation on the financial side was issued by Commissioner Ware March 16 under the authority of Secretary Hitchcock. It declares that claimants for pensions who are over 62 years old shall be considered as disabled one-half in power to perform manual labor, and fixes rates. This is distinctly a service pension, granted for age alone, and the usual allowances at higher

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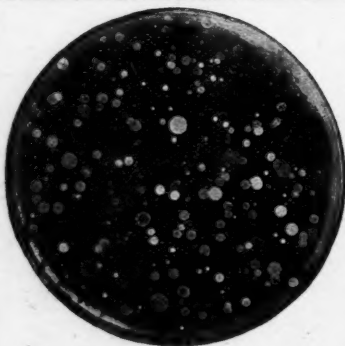
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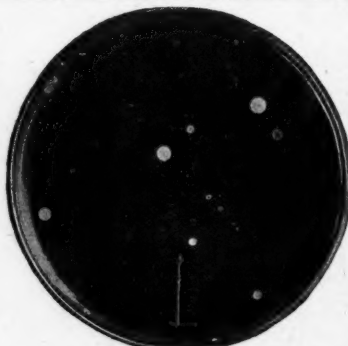
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rates for disabilities other than age, continue. The theory of the order is that "old age is an infirmity, the average nature and extent of which the experience of the pension bureau has established with reasonable certainty." But the minimum of 62 years was justified by reference to the Mexican pension act of 1887, which authorized the payment of pensions to soldiers of the Mexican war who had reached that age.

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With the possible exception of the Russian ambassador, the busiest member of the diplomatic corps at Washington these days is Mr. Kogoro Takahira, who represents the mikado at the capital of Uncle Sam. Minister Takahira, who was appointed to his present post in 1900, laughingly calls Washington "the cradle of his diplomatic career," for he first came in contact with foreign governments there as a member of the Japanese legation from 1879 to 1883. He afterward returned to this country in 1891 as consul general at New York, so the present is his third mission to this country. Mr. Takahira is about fifty-seven years of age, rather muscular in build and somewhat taller than the Japanese standard. His face is strong, his manner of expression rather studied and his command of English perfect. Mme. Takahira appears much younger than her husband. She discarded the national costume of her country many years ago and is said to be one of the best dressed women in Washington. She speaks English nearly as fluently as her distinguished husband.

* * *

REPORTS from the seat of the war state that the Japanese forward movement against the Russians has begun, and that the latter have been cleared out of Korea. It is stated that all of the Russian troops have retreated beyond the Yalu river and are now in Manchuria. The engagements which brought about this movement have been rather skirmishes, but the Japanese

troops seem to have been successful in every instance. We may now expect to hear of some important engagements on land. The Japanese, by their land operations thus far have brought their army up to Russian territory and we may expect that the Russians will make a stand at the Yalu river when the Japs attempt to cross that river and enter Manchuria. There are no developments of the naval campaign and the situation at Port Arthur remains the same.



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A. V. D. Watterson, writing to the Pittsburg Observer from South Carolina, mentions the interesting fact that Savannah has, to some extent, solved the school question. Savannah is the only city in the United States which, he says, has done justice to Catholics by a distribution of the school fund. Two large schools, one of twelve rooms and one of eight rooms, are maintained, in every respect, out of the public school funds. There are twenty-two lay teachers, all Catholics, who teach in these schools, giving Catholic instruction during the remainder of the day. This system has been in vogue for thirty-four years, and has proved quite satisfactory. There is an unwritten law that no Catholic teacher shall apply for permission to teach in any other public school, and non-Catholics never apply for the Catholic public school positions. Of the school directors, three are Catholics, and the entire number have always acted with the utmost harmony, there never having arisen any serious difference of opinion since the system was inaugurated.

The plans and specifications of the new convent and academy to be erected by the Dominican Sisters in the Sacred Heart parish, Omaha, Neb., are in the

hands of the contractors for their bids. The mother-general has decided to build this spring, one wing of their contemplated institution.

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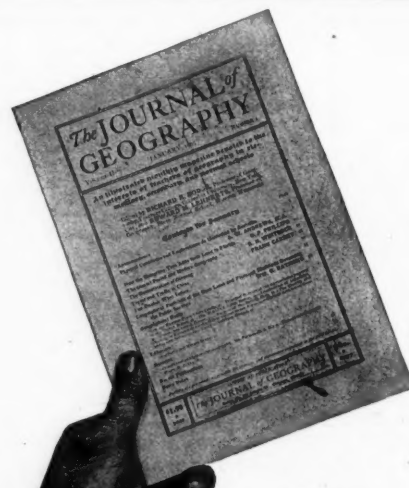
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